



**Liderazgo de Servicio como Promotor de Procesos de Generación de
Sentido: Efectos en el Alcance de Metas y en los Comportamientos
Laborales Contraproducentes**

Marta Herrero Lázaro

Directora: Raquel Rodríguez-Carvajal

Co-director: Bernardo Moreno-Jiménez

TESIS DOCTORAL

Facultad de Psicología

Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

Madrid, Junio 2017

“Someone may be rich and powerful, but without trusted friends they will never be happy. Someone else may be poor, but if they are surrounded by steadfast friends they are sure to be happy. Therefore, taking care of others is the best way to fulfill our own interests. We are social animals-we need to be warm-hearted and to look after others. And if we are to do that we need a strong sense of the oneness of humanity”

Dalai Lama, 2017

AGRADECIMIENTOS (ACKNOWLEDGMENTS)

Es el momento de poner punto y final y echar la vista atrás. Me cuesta más escribir esta parte que ninguna otra porque siento que tengo mucho que decir y me falta espacio. Por mucho que quiera parecer en el papel, la tesis no es un trabajo que haya podido hacer sola.

Quiero empezar agradeciéndoles a mis directores en haberme ayudado a caminar hasta aquí. A ti, Raquel, que me tendieras la mano tan pronto en la carrera, y me descubrieras un mundo que me apasiona. Sin ti no estaría aquí. Gracias por ser tan paciente, y saltar sin problemas del rol de jefa a amiga y en algunos momentos a mami académica. Y a ti, Bernardo, porque estar cerca de ti es tener una ventana abierta a tu enorme sabiduría. Gracias por estar siempre dispuesto a ayudar, por tus grandes consejos, por las oportunidades que me has brindado estos años y por preocuparte porque consigamos lo que nos proponemos.

Además, también quiero agradecer a Amalio Blanco su inestimable ayuda en algo tan importante como la solicitud del contrato de investigación que me ha permitido hacer esta tesis. And I do also would like to express my gratitude to Dirk van Dierendonck for contributing with his unquestionable knowledge to the development of every step of this project. I am grateful for having had the opportunity of researching with you. Thank you for your servant guidance and your advices and for making me aware of my own value.

En esta carrera de cuatro años he tenido la enorme suerte de trabajar con gente maravillosa dentro de mi vida académica que han hecho que disfrute de mi trabajo. Quiero agradecer a Luisma, Carmen, Aldo y Elena por hacer que venir a la uni día a día haya significado sonreír desde antes de abrir la puerta del laboratorio. Quiero

pensar que esa pizarra vacía vamos a poder seguir llenándola de viajes, vino “añejo” sudafricano, bodas, M&Ms y sobretodo mucho cariño. Gracias a Sara, Carlos, Oscar, David, Ruth, Jennifer y Luz, por ser el mejor equipo rewarding que se puede pedir. Gracias por esos momentos Dior, el Fridays, o los brotes en reunión. Gracias también a Liliana, por trasmitirme su cariño y su calma y por permitirme disfrutar del trabajo en equipo con ella. Y a Eva, por compartir momentos y charlas divertidas y ayudarme a confiar en mis capacidades como docente.

Además, quiero agradecer a Juanma, a Gilete, a Paula, a Iris, a Ana, a Xapa, a Mónica, a Senen, a Iria y a Alicia los buenos momentos donde he podido olvidar de vez en cuando la tesis y disfrutar de su compañía.

Finalmente quiero agradecerles a mis padres, a mis hermanos y a mi novio que me hayan apoyado y dado espacio y que hayan tenido paciencia cuando el estrés me ha querido comer; esta tesis va de la importancia del sentido para guiar la conducta de las personas y vosotros dais sentido a mi vida. Gracias por guiarme hasta aquí.

ÍNDICE

RESUMEN GENERAL DE LA TESIS	11
CAPÍTULO 1:	
INTRODUCCIÓN GENERAL.....	15
1.1. ¿QUÉ ES EL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO?	19
1.2. MEDIDAS DEL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO	24
1.2.1. Las Escalas de Autoinforme Unidimensionales	25
1.2.2. Las escalas de autoinforme Multidimensionales.....	26
1.2.3. Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio (<i>Servant Leadership Survey</i>).....	30
1.2.4. Estudios transculturales de la SLS.....	32
1.3. Los Efectos del Liderazgo de Servicio	34
3.1. Promoción del Alcance de Metas	38
1.3.2. Prevención de la Aparición de Comportamientos Laborales Contraproducentes .	39
1.4. El Liderazgo de Servicio como Generador de Sentido.....	41
1.4.1. ¿Qué es el sentido?.....	41
1.4.2. ¿Cómo se facilitan los procesos de generación de sentido en el contexto laboral?	44
1.5. PROMOCIÓN Y PREVENCIÓN DE CONDUCTAS A PARTIR DE LA GENERACIÓN DE SENTIDO.....	51
1.6. EL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO Y LA INDIVIDUALIDAD: EL ROL DE LA PERSONALIDAD PROACTIVA	53
1.7. OBJETIVOS DE LA TESIS.....	55
1.8. DESCRIPCIÓN GENERAL DE LOS ESTUDIOS INCLUIDOS EN LA TESIS DOCTORAL	56
CHAPTER 2:57	
LEADING PEOPLE POSITIVELY: CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION OF THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP SURVEY (SLS).....	57
2.1. LEADING PEOPLE POSITIVELY: CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION OF THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP SURVEY (SLS)	61
2.1.1. Why a servant leader?	63
2.2. METHOD	68
2.2.1. Participants and procedure	68
2.2.2. Measurements.....	69
2.2.3. Statistical analyses.....	71

2.3. RESULTS	72
2.4. DISCUSSION	80
CHAPTER 3:	
SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND GOAL ATTAINMENT THROUGH	
MEANINGFUL LIFE AND VITALITY, A DIARY STUDY.....	83
3.1 SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND GOAL ATTAINMENT THROUGH.....	87
MEANINGFUL LIFE AND VITALITY, A DIARY STUDY.....	87
3.1.1. Enhancing Meaning in Life through Servant Leadership	88
3.1.2. Meaning in Life and Vitality	92
3.1.3. Vitality and Goal Attainment	94
3.1.4. From Servant Leadership to Goal Attainment: The Role of Meaning in Life and Vitality.....	95
3.1.5. Follower Proactivity Moderating Servant Leadership Influence on Meaning in Life	96
3.2. METHOD	97
3.2.1. Sample	97
3.2.2. Procedure	98
3.2.3. Instruments.....	99
3.2.4. Statistical Strategies.....	104
3.3. RESULTS	107
3.3.1. Descriptive Analysis	107
3.3.2. Null Model	107
3.3.3. Model 1: Direct and Mediated Effects.....	109
3.3.4. Model 2: Cross-level Interaction Effects.....	111
3.3.5. Additional analysis.....	112
3.4. DISCUSSION	113
3.4.1. Theoretical Implications	113
3.4.2. Practical Implications	116
3.4.3. Limitations and Future Research	116
3.5. CONCLUSION	118
CHAPTER 4:	
SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE DEVIANC DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CRISES:	
PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS AND MEANINGFUL WORK AS EXPLANATORY MECHANISMS	119
4.1. SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE DEVIANC DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CRISES: PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS AND MEANINGFUL WORK AS EXPLANATORY MECHANISMS	123

4.1.1. Organizational Crises and Workplace Deviance	125
4.1.2. Servant Leadership and Workplace Deviance in Organizational Crisis	128
4.1.3. Overview of studies	131
4.2. EXPERIMENT 1	131
4.2.1. Method	134
4.2.2. Results.....	138
4.2.3. Discussion	141
4.3. EXPERIMENT 2	142
4.3.1. Method	143
4.3.3. Results	145
4.3.4. Discussion	148
4.4.1. Which Contextual Factors Can Prompt Workplace Deviance?.....	149
4.4.2. How Servant Leadership Could Reduce Workplace Deviance?	152
4.4.3. Method	157
4.4.4. Results.....	161
4.4.5. Discussion	167
4.6. GENERAL DISCUSSION	169
4.6.1. Practical Implications.....	174
4.6.2. Limitations and Future Research	174
4.7. CONCLUSION	175
CAPÍTULO 5: DISCUSIÓN GENERAL	176
5.1. Validación transcultural de la SLS y diferencias entre países	177
5.2. Resultados sobre la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio	181
5.3. La generación de sentido.....	183
5.4. Los procesos de auto-regulación y el sentido	186
5.5. Procesos de auto-regulación en paralelo	187
5.6. Liderazgo de servicio y los beneficios fuera del trabajo	189
5.7. El efecto moderador de la personalidad proactiva	190
5.8. Implicaciones prácticas.....	191
5.9. Limitaciones y futuras líneas de investigación	193
5.10. Conclusión general de la tesis	196
Referencias	203
APPENDIX A: Spanish version of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire.	235
APPENDIX B: Organizational problematic situation descriptions of Study 3	236

RESUMEN GENERAL DE LA TESIS

El liderazgo de servicio destaca por su interés fundamental en los trabajadores y por tener una visión del desarrollo organizacional ligada a valores éticos. En esta tesis se pretende ahondar en el papel de este estilo de liderazgo en el contexto organizacional a través de tres estudios. El primer estudio se dirige a la profundización sobre el constructo del liderazgo de servicio a través de la validación en castellano de la Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio en tres países (España, México y Argentina). El segundo estudio utiliza la metodología de diario para abordar los efectos del liderazgo de servicio en el alcance de metas de los empleados analizando la generación de sentido como factor explicativo. Por último, el tercer estudio aborda a través de tres experimentos la efectividad de estos líderes en contextos de crisis organizacional en la prevención de conductas disruptivas y extiende la comprensión de la generación de sentido incluyendo la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas como mediador de los efectos de este estilo de liderazgo. A partir de los resultados obtenidos, el liderazgo de servicio se muestra eficaz promocionando el alcance de metas y previniendo la aparición de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes. En este proceso, la generación de sentido destaca como factor explicativo clave para entender la influencia del liderazgo de servicio en el comportamiento de los trabajadores. En resumen, la presente tesis refuerza el valor del liderazgo de servicio como facilitador de un entorno de trabajo ético y lleno de sentido que motiva a los trabajadores a alcanzar aquello que se proponen.

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

Servant leadership emphasizes the interest on workers and an ethical vision of the organizational development. This thesis aims to delve into the role of this style of leadership in the organizational context through three studies. The first study deepens in the servant leadership construct by the validation of the Servant Leadership Survey in Spanish language in three countries (Spain, Mexico and Argentina). The second study uses a diary methodology to address the effects of servant leadership on employees' goals attainment and the meaning-making processes as an explanatory factor. Finally, the third study approaches through three experiments the effectiveness of these leaders in crisis contexts in the prevention of deviant behaviors. Besides, this study extends the understanding of the generation of the meaning processes researching the role of the satisfaction of basic needs as a mediator of the effects of this leadership style. Based on the obtained results, servant leadership is an effective style in promoting goal attainment and preventing from deviant behaviors against the organization. In this process, the meaning-making processes stand out as a key explanatory factor of the influence of servant leadership on workers' behavior. In summary, this thesis reinforces the value of servant leadership in promoting an ethical and meaningful work environment that motivates workers to achieve their goals.

CAPÍTULO 1:

INTRODUCCIÓN GENERAL

La crisis económica, el aumento de la multiculturalidad, los rápidos cambios en los mercados debidos a la globalización y a internet, los escándalos de corrupción, la sostenibilidad ecológica, las ilegalidades empresariales... es indudable que el contexto actual es convulso y que las actividades empresariales impactan directamente y se ven envueltas en las consecuencias que la adaptación a dicho contexto tiene en nuestra sociedad. Dada esta situación, una de las preguntas que debemos hacernos es hacia donde queremos que se desarrollen las organizaciones.

El desarrollo de una organización entendido puramente en base a su productividad y potencia económica olvida factores críticos de la sostenibilidad a largo plazo. Por ello, cada vez más se señala que dicha sostenibilidad debe estar ligada a cuidar el impacto que tiene la actividad de la organización en el mundo, la sociedad, y el bienestar de las organizaciones y las personas (Ferdig, 2007). Esta visión entraña el reto de tomar conciencia y gestionar las organizaciones en base a los valores de todas las personas relacionadas con la misma, como clientes, empleados y proveedores, para establecer guías comunes sobre hacia dónde queremos dirigirnos (Kriger y Hanson, 1999).

Específicamente, las organizaciones que quieran desarrollarse de manera sostenible, productiva y duradera, deben tener en cuenta que uno de los factores más importantes de su éxito o su fracaso estriba en prestar adecuada atención a los recursos humanos de la empresa (Kaul, 2014). En esta línea, desde la perspectiva de la psicología positiva ocupacional se aboga por organizaciones saludables que centren la atención en el trabajador (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, y Norman, 2007; Rodríguez-Carvajal, Moreno-Jiménez, De Rivas Hermosilla, Álvarez-Bejarano, y Sanz-Vergel, 2010; Seligman y Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Estas organizaciones saludables estarían comprometidas con el desarrollo completo de las personas entendido como el desarrollo de sus fortalezas y

capacidades como base para la mejora de la productividad de la empresa (Rodríguez-Carvajal y cols., 2010).

Concretamente, el liderazgo de servicio puede cubrir las necesidades de las empresas en su interés por convertirse en instituciones saludables que cuiden de sus trabajadores, ya que este estilo de liderazgo plantea un compromiso ético en el desarrollo de la organización donde el bienestar y desarrollo de los empleados cobran una relevancia primordial frente a los objetivos de producción tradicionales (Stone, Russell y Patterson, 2004). De este modo, se centra la atención en el trabajador y se aborda la relación líder-empleado para entender el comportamiento de los trabajadores (Avolio, Walumbwa y Weber, 2009). Expresamente, los líderes de servicio pueden dar respuesta a la necesidad de conseguir el compromiso y dedicación de los empleados mediante su enfoque centrado en los trabajadores (Kriger y Zhovtobryukh, 2016). En efecto, una clave de la guía del comportamiento de los trabajadores estriba en hacer que sientan que su trabajo es valorado y apreciado, y que les acerca hacia propósitos que consideran importantes (Kriger y Zhovtobryukh, 2016; Wong, Ivtzan y Lomas, 2017). Por ello, el liderazgo de servicio podría influir favorablemente en este reto al facilitar que los trabajadores estén más motivados a través de la generación de sentido (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010; Wong y cols., 2017).

El sentido está en la base del desarrollo y bienestar humano y sostiene la base de las motivaciones más importantes que mueven nuestra conducta (Emmons, 2003; Weinstein, Ryan, y Deci, 2012). Generar sentido nos ayuda a entender y dotar de significado a las cosas que vivimos y a situar nuestra identidad en el mundo (Baumeister, 1991). En base a nuestros valores personales, podemos valorar nuestra interacción en los distintos contextos de nuestras vidas en función de si nos acerca o nos aleja de lo que es importante para nosotros (Diener, Suh, Lucas, y Smith, 1999).

Dada la importancia del trabajo en nuestras vidas, es comprensible la importancia que este contexto puede tener en la generación de sentido (Steger, 2016; Steger y Dik, 2009). A pesar de ello, es un concepto poco estudiado en el campo organizacional, si bien las pocas investigaciones en esta línea muestran el importante papel mediador que el sentido de los trabajadores ejerce en los resultados organizacionales (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, y Wu, 2016).

En base a lo expuesto, el liderazgo de servicio se plantea como un estilo de liderazgo clave para dar respuesta al desarrollo de organizaciones saludables con compromiso ético, que tengan en cuenta al trabajador al promover el trabajo como fuente de sentido.

Con este interés esta tesis aborda el estudio del constructo del liderazgo de servicio, su efectividad y los mecanismos por los cuales puede generar resultados deseables en la empresa a través del comportamiento de los trabajadores.

1.1. ¿QUÉ ES EL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO?

El liderazgo de servicio fue planteado por primera vez por Greenleaf (1977). En su obra, este autor plantea la importancia de un liderazgo cuya máxima para ejercer su influencia sea la motivación de servir a los demás (Greenleaf, 1977). Así, Greenleaf (1977) plantea un liderazgo centrado en las personas y que promueve el desarrollo de la organización con un gran compromiso ético en el que se vela por el contexto en el que dicha organización se desenvuelve.

Con el liderazgo de servicio hay un cambio cualitativo de enfoque, no se tiene en cuenta a los trabajadores para cumplir las metas de la organización sino que los trabajadores en sí se sitúan como pilar central del esfuerzo de un líder servidor (Stone, Russell, y Patterson, 2004). El liderazgo de servicio, de hecho, se caracteriza por

empoderar a los trabajadores para que cubran sus necesidades y consigan sus metas personales cediendo responsabilidad y fomentando la autonomía (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). El líder servidor es una persona que aprecia el valor de cada empleado y se mantiene en segundo plano para que cada persona perciba los resultados de su propio esfuerzo (van Dierendonck, 2011).

En su planteamiento inicial, Greenleaf (1977) reflexiona sobre qué es el liderazgo de servicio a modo de ensayo. El objetivo no es el establecimiento de un modelo teórico del que partan estudios científicos sino iniciar una reflexión que impulse el interés por el liderazgo de servicio. Desde entonces, desde el mundo académico se han propuesto diversas teorías que intentan aunar las características para la delimitación del constructo de liderazgo de servicio. A continuación se presentan cinco teorías de gran influencia en el campo del liderazgo de servicio.

La primera teoría que se presenta es la de Laub (1999) este autor conceptualiza el liderazgo de servicio como un liderazgo centrado en seis aspectos: 1) *Valorar a las personas*, 2) *desarrollar a los trabajadores*, 3) *construir una sensación de comunidad*, 4) *mostrar autenticidad*, 5) *proveer de liderazgo* y 6) *compartir el liderazgo*. Desde la característica de *valorar a las personas*, Laub (1999) destaca el valor central de los trabajadores para estos líderes, la aceptación de los individuos como son y la confianza en ellos y en sus capacidades. En la característica de *desarrollar a los trabajadores* se describe el énfasis en ser modelos de conducta y alentar y ayudar a las personas a conseguir lo mejor de sí mismas. La característica de *construir una comunidad* engloba el establecer relaciones personales sanas, trabajo colaborativo teniendo en cuenta y valorando las diferencias y la expresión individual de cada persona. En cuanto a la característica de *mostrar autenticidad*, Laub (1999) refleja al líder servidor como transparente, honesto en sus limitaciones y fortalezas, dispuesto a aprender e

íntegro. Por su parte, *proveer liderazgo* engloba el establecimiento de metas, el situar una visión de futuro y tomar la iniciativa y asumir riesgos. Por último, la característica de *compartir el liderazgo* refleja el empoderamiento de los trabajadores para que asuman poder al mismo tiempo que el líder no establece diferencias de estatus rechazando ganar honores o beneficios de su posición (Laub, 1999).

La segunda teoría que se presenta es la propuesta por Spears (2010). Este autor propone un modelo de liderazgo de servicio que recoge diez características. Así, el liderazgo de servicio englobaría 1) *la escucha*, donde se resalta la importancia de prestar atención a los trabajadores y a sí mismo para conocer las metas, intereses o necesidades; 2) *la empatía* para entender y valorar a cada persona de manera individual; 3) *la sanación*, entendida como la capacidad humana de ayudar a los demás a afrontar las dificultades; 4) *la conciencia*, que describe la capacidad del líder de distinguir los principios éticos, el uso del poder y los valores que guían su propia conducta; 5) *la persuasión*, donde la influencia del líder no se basa en la imposición coercitiva sino en el convencimiento; 6) *la conceptualización*, entendida como el establecimiento de metas trascendentes a largo plazo; 7) *la previsión*, donde el líder sea capaz de prever intuitivamente las situaciones que pueden venir; 8) *la responsabilidad social*, ésta sitúa el foco del liderazgo en cuidar de los trabajadores y alcanzar metas que supongan un bien para la sociedad; 9) *el compromiso* con el crecimiento de la gente, que lleva inherente la concepción de los trabajadores como personas valiosas por encima de su rol laboral; y 10) *la construcción de comunidad*, en donde se enfatiza la importancia de las relaciones sociales dentro del trabajo (Spears, 2010).

La tercera teoría del liderazgo de servicio que se describe es la propuesta por Russell y Stone (2002). La teoría presentada por estos autores es más compleja y clasifica los

atributos del liderazgo de servicio como *atributos funcionales* (características operativas que se observan como comportamientos efectivos en el contexto laboral) y *atributos complementarios* (suplementan la funcionalidad de los atributos funcionales) (Russell y Stone, 2002). Dentro de los *atributos funcionales* estarían la visión, la honestidad, la integridad, la confianza, el servicio, el modelado, el ser pionero, el valorar a los demás, y el empoderamiento. Estos autores consideran que estos atributos funcionales están interrelacionados (Russell y Stone, 2002). Dentro de los *atributos complementarios* estaría la comunicación, la credibilidad, el ser competente, la responsabilidad social, la visibilidad, la influencia, la persuasión, la escucha, el alentar a los trabajadores, el enseñar y el delegar. Estos atributos complementarían a los funcionales y actuarían como prerequisites en algunos casos (Russell y Stone, 2002).

La cuarta teoría que se describe es la de Patterson (2003). Esta autora presenta un modelo procesual del liderazgo de servicio en el que siete aspectos del liderazgo se propone que suceden de manera concatenada. Esas siete características del liderazgo de servicio son el (a) *amor agapao*, (b) la *humildad*, (c) el *altruismo*, (d) la *visión*, (e) la *confianza*, (f) el *empoderamiento*, y (g) el *servicio* (Patterson, 2003). El *agapao* recoge la consideración y aceptación de la totalidad de la persona desde un amor que surge desde el sentido moral o social de hacer lo correcto. La *humildad* refleja los comportamientos del líder servidor por los que plantea sus habilidades de manera no ególatra siendo consciente de sus limitaciones y de que el consejo de otros puede ser útil (Patterson, 2003). El *altruismo* sería una característica paralela en el proceso a la humildad, que reflejaría la capacidad de auto-sacrificio de los líderes servidores y de ayudar a los demás de manera desinteresada. La *visión* que hace referencia a la capacidad de tener en mente y concebir el futuro desarrollo de los trabajadores y los miembros de la organización. Por otro lado, la *confianza* describe una característica

paralela en el modelo procesual a la visión que engloba los esfuerzos del líder servidor de ser una persona de fiar y en la que poder apoyarse (Patterson, 2003). El *empoderamiento* que refleja el ceder poder y promover el desarrollo y el crecimiento de los empleados. Y por último, el *servicio* que sería el resultado final del proceso y reflejaría la motivación desinteresada de los líderes de servicio por guiar y ayudar a los demás (Patterson, 2003).

La quinta y última teoría que se presenta es la de van Dierendonck (2011). En esta teoría, van Dierendonck (2011) propone unificar las propuestas anteriores entorno a las seis características fundamentales para definir el liderazgo de servicio que posteriormente amplía a ocho (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). Estas son:

- (1) El *empoderar y desarrollar a la gente* donde el liderazgo de servicio enfatizaría la cesión de poder y promovería que los trabajadores pudiesen sentirse confiados en sus capacidades para conseguir autónomamente las metas.
- (2) En un entorno de autonomía como el descrito, una característica importante es el *responsabilizar*. Los líderes de servicio promueven que los trabajadores se hagan responsables del poder que se les ha cedido a través de clarificar qué se espera de ellos y transmitiendo el valor de las actividades en las que se involucran.
- (3) La *humildad* que como en modelos anteriores, reflejaría la capacidad del líder de percibir con perspectiva sus propias capacidades de modo que pueda aprender y aceptar las opiniones de otros al mismo tiempo que respetar el valor de los demás.
- (4) Esta última característica iría en línea con el *ceder méritos*. Desde esta perspectiva, los líderes servidores se mantendrían en un segundo plano ante la consecución de objetivos permitiendo una situación de igualdad de poder donde cada persona pueda recibir gratificaciones por sus éxitos.

- (5) La ***autenticidad***. En base a esta característica, los líderes servidores mostrarían comportamientos coherentes entre con sus pensamientos y sentimientos de modo que sería percibido como una persona íntegra.
- (6) La ***aceptación interpersonal*** refleja el enfoque central de los líderes de servicio en los demás. Esta característica reflejaría los esfuerzos por conocer y entender la realidad individual de cada empleado desde la consideración del valor personal de cada persona.
- (7) La característica de ***proveer de dirección*** resalta el aspecto del liderazgo más enfocado en la tarea frente a la organización. Así, el líder de servicio sigue siendo un líder por lo que sigue promoviendo metas y estableciendo planes de desarrollo, aunque en este caso teniendo en cuenta las necesidades de sus trabajadores.
- (8) La ***responsabilidad social*** es el aspecto del liderazgo de servicio que refleja su preocupación por el desarrollo de la empresa desde una perspectiva ética desde la que se plantean propósitos por el bien de la gente.

1.2. MEDIDAS DEL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO

El desarrollo de la investigación en liderazgo de servicio se ha dado ligada al desarrollo de escalas de autoinforme. Dada la diversidad de teorías, no es de extrañar la amplia diversidad de estas medidas de autoinforme que reflejan distintos modelos y conceptualizaciones del constructo (Parris y Peachey, 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011).

La primera escala que aparece en la literatura la presenta Laub en 1999. A partir de una investigación inicial sobre las características del liderazgo de servicio, Laub (1999) desarrolla la escala *Organizational Leadership Assessment* (OLA) (en español: Medida del liderazgo organizacional) donde incluye 74 ítems dirigidos a medir el liderazgo de servicio a través de las seis dimensiones propuestas en su

modelo teórico. A pesar de recoger el planteamiento teórico global, la versión final de la escala (con 54 ítems) no refleja psicométricamente el modelo multidimensional esperado reduciendo la estructura a un solo factor (Laub, 1999). Pese a esta limitación, esta escala tiene el valor de ser la que impulsó el estudio empírico en el liderazgo de servicio (van Dierendonck, 2011).

A partir de este momento, la proliferación de escalas aumenta pudiendo observar escalas unidimensionales o multidimensionales.

1.2.1. Las Escalas de Autoinforme Unidimensionales

El número de escalas en la literatura que miden el liderazgo de servicio a través de un único factor, sin diferenciar en subdimensiones, es mucho más escaso que aquellas que contemplan el constructo de manera multidimensional. Entre ellas, cabe destacar al menos las escalas de Ehrhart (2004) y Winston y Fields (2015).

La *Servant Leadership Scale* (en español: Escala de liderazgo de servicio) desarrollada por Ehrhart (2004) mide el liderazgo de servicio a través de 14 ítems. Esta escala recoge una conceptualización de los líderes de servicio basada en las características de establecer relaciones con los subordinados, empoderarlos, ayudarles a crecer y tener éxito, comportarse de manera ética, tener habilidades conceptuales, poner a los subordinados primero y crear valor para aquellos fuera de la organización; que destacan dos aspectos clave: el comportamiento ético y la preocupación por los subordinados (Ehrhart, 2004).

Además de esta escala, una propuesta posterior unidimensional es la de Winston y Fields (2015). Estos autores desarrollan una escala de 10 ítems con el objetivo de reflejar los comportamientos mínimos para medir SL a través de un factor. En el desarrollo de esta versión, en una primera fase del estudio recogieron 116 ítems de escalas multidimensionales previas y sometieron a evaluación la adecuación de

dichos ítems a un panel de 23 expertos. En un segundo paso, los 22 ítems con mayor nivel de adecuación se distribuyeron a una muestra aleatoria y se realizó un análisis factorial exploratorio (Winston y Fields, 2015).

A pesar de que la utilidad de estas medidas unidimensionales del liderazgo de servicio queda patente en la alta frecuencia de uso de algunas de estas escalas, como la propuesta por Ehrhart (2004) (Parris y Peachey, 2013), la mayor limitación que presentan es que no recogen la complejidad asociada al constructo y limitan la posibilidad de estudios diferenciales sobre comportamientos específicos de los líderes (Rachmawati y Lantu, 2014; van Dierendonck, 2011).

1.2.2. Las escalas de autoinforme Multidimensionales

Las escalas multidimensionales surgen precisamente para cubrir la recién nombrada limitación y en pos de reflejar la complejidad del constructo del liderazgo de servicio. Sin embargo, abordar esta complejidad no es sencillo y queda patente en el alto número de propuestas multidimensionales para la medida de este estilo de liderazgo (van Dierendonck, 2011).

Una de estas escalas multidimensionales es el *Servant Leadership Profile* (en español: Perfil del liderazgo de servicio) propuesta inicialmente por Page y Wong (2000) para recoger 12 dimensiones de este estilo de liderazgo a través de 99 ítems. A pesar de la propuesta inicial de 12 características, los análisis estadísticos indicaron una estructura de ocho dimensiones. Posteriormente se han desarrollado revisiones de la escala en las que la estructura final se ha mostrado variable entre siete (Wong y Page, 2003), cinco (Wong y Davey, 2007), o tres dimensiones (Dennis y Winston, 2003).

Cabe destacar que es la única escala de la que se conoce una versión en español (*Servant Leadership Short Scale*, en español: Escala corta de liderazgo de servicio; Rivera, Santos, y Martín-Fernández, 2017) dirigida especialmente a población

adolescente y que se compone de una versión reducida de 14 ítems aunque en este caso con una estructura de un solo factor. En base a los distintos estudios llevados a cabo hasta la fecha y la diversidad de factores de esta escala, apuntan hacia cierta inestabilidad de su estructura factorial que, junto a la falta de cobertura del conjunto del constructo en algunas versiones, son indicadores de importantes limitaciones en la validez de esta escala (van Dierendonck, 2011).

La escala multidimensional desarrollada por Dennis y Bocarnea (2005) parte para su propuesta de la teoría de Patterson sobre el liderazgo de servicio anteriormente mencionada. Sin embargo, esta escala consta de 42 ítems agrupados únicamente en cinco de los siete factores teóricos propuestos: Amor, Humildad, Confianza, Visión y Empoderamiento. Estudios posteriores en muestras de distintos países muestran resultados factoriales con dimensiones dispares pudiendo confirmar la fiabilidad de dimensiones aisladas pero que no reflejan el conjunto del constructo (e.g. van Dierendonck, 2011; para revisión).

En la siguiente propuesta de medida, Barbuto y Wheeler (2006) desarrollan una escala para medir inicialmente 11 características atendiendo a las bases teóricas de Greenleaf, aunque los análisis exploratorios arrojan cinco 5 factores, a saber, Altruismo, Sanación emocional, Sabiduría, Mapeo persuasivo y Gestión organizacional. Sin embargo, esta estructura no se ha replicado en muestras con otros países (Dannhauser y Boshoff, 2007) y peca de falta de un marco teórico claro en la operativización del constructo (Rachmawati y Lantu, 2014).

Por otro lado, la escala de comportamientos del liderazgo de servicio (originalmente *Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale*; Sendjaya, Sarros y Santora, 2008) se desarrolla a partir de estudios cualitativos y cuantitativos que dan lugar a un cuestionario de 35 ítems que refleja seis dimensiones (Subordinación voluntaria, Yo auténtico,

Relaciones de alianza, Responsabilidad moral, Transcendencia espiritual e Influencia transformadora). Inicialmente esta escala plantea seis dimensiones sin factor de segundo orden que indique la medida de liderazgo de servicio (Sendjaya y cols., 2008). Así, esta estructura multidimensional sin un factor de liderazgo se ha replicado en muestras de Australia e Indonesia (Pekerti y Sendjaya, 2010). Estudios psicométricos posteriores se han dirigido a abordar el estudio de la estructura de segundo orden y observan que la estructura unifactorial se ajusta moderadamente a los datos (Sendjaya y Cooper, 2011). La mayor limitación de esta escala es que la investigación sobre su estructura es exigua y contradictoria por lo que no permite establecer conclusiones claras sobre si esta medida puede o no reflejar el constructo global del liderazgo de servicio. Además, proviene en algunos casos de muestras de tamaño reducido y con ajustes de modelo limitados.

Asimismo, otra escala para la medida del liderazgo de servicio es la propuesta por Liden, Wayne, Zhao y Henderson (2008). Estos autores desarrollan un instrumento en base a análisis estadísticos refinados incluyendo el análisis multinivel para testar la validez predictiva e incremental del constructo con respecto a otros estilos de liderazgo (ej. transformacional). La escala consta de 28 ítems que recogen nueve dimensiones teóricas que se ven reducidas a siete en el análisis factorial (Sanación emocional, Creación de valor para la comunidad, Capacidades conceptuales, Empoderamiento, Ayudar a los trabajadores a crecer y tener éxito, Poner a los trabajadores primero, y Comportarse éticamente). Si bien los desarrollos metodológicos de esta escala cumplen altos estándares, la estructura factorial sigue sin reflejar la totalidad de la multidimensionalidad esperada (van Dierendonck, 2011). Recientemente, desde la escala inicial, se ha validado posteriormente una versión

unidimensional para medir globalmente el liderazgo de servicio a través de una versión reducida de 7 ítems (Liden y cols., 2015).

Otra escala es la *Executive Servant Leadership Scale* (ESLS; en español Escala de liderazgo de servicio ejecutivo; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, y Colwell, 2011). Esta medida parte de 55 ítems recogidos de las escalas de Barbuto y Wheeler (2006), Page y Wong (2000), Ehrhart (2004) y Liden y cols. (2008) adaptados específicamente para recoger los comportamientos de altos ejecutivos. La versión final de la escala consta de 25 ítems que miden cinco factores (Apoyo interpersonal, Construcción de sentimientos de comunidad, Altruismo, Igualitarismo, Integridad moral) (Reed y cols., 2011). Estas cinco dimensiones no recogen el total del constructo dado que en el proceso de desarrollo se eliminan dimensiones para reducir el solapamiento con otras teorías de liderazgo. En base a estas decisiones quitan de la medida del constructo algunas dimensiones que han sido consideradas nucleares a la definición del liderazgo de servicio, como el empoderamiento (e.g. van Dierendonck, 2011).

La última escala que se presenta es la escala de liderazgo de servicio o *Servant Leadership Survey* (SLS), desarrollada por van Dierendonck y Nuijten (2011). En relación a otras propuestas, parece ser la única escala que ha mostrado buenas propiedades psicométricas para cubrir la multidimensionalidad completa del constructo de liderazgo de servicio (van Dierendonck, 2011). Dado este valor añadido, la presente tesis aboga por profundizar en el constructo del liderazgo de servicio y su medida en base a dicha escala. Es más, la SLS ha sido validada recientemente mediante invarianza métrica en 9 países con 9 idiomas distintos indicando que puede ser útil para estudios transculturales del constructo (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017). En base a lo expuesto, esta tesis se considera especialmente útil para abordar específicamente uno de los intereses de esta tesis, que estriba en conocer si la validez

del constructo de liderazgo de servicio medido por la SLS se mantiene en otras culturas de habla hispana como son España, México y Argentina donde, pese a esperarse diferencias en la percepción del liderazgo (Hanges, Lord, y Dickson, 2000), se desconoce la existencia de estudios sobre la validez multidimensional del constructo. En esta línea, dado que la escala SLS es el instrumento del que se conocen estudios de su validez en un mayor número de países (v.g. van Dierendonck y cols., 2017), se espera que sea un instrumento válido y fiable en las tres culturas.

En los siguientes apartados se profundiza sobre las características de la escala SLS (apartado 2.3) y las diferencias culturales del constructo de liderazgo de servicio (apartado 2.4).

1.2.3. Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio (*Servant Leadership Survey*)

La escala de liderazgo de servicio, SLS, está propuesta en base a ocho características que se sustentan en la teoría de van Dierendonck (2011). En base a estas características, van Dierendonck y Nuijten (2011) crean un total de 99 ítems que se someten a análisis exploratorios y confirmatorios. Los resultados de la escala arrojan un instrumento compuesto por 30 ítems que recoge las 8 dimensiones teóricas propuestas para el liderazgo de servicio: (1) Empoderamiento, (2) Responsabilizar, (3) Coraje, (4) Aceptación interpersonal, (5) Ceder méritos, (6) Humildad, (7) Autenticidad, y (8) Responsabilidad social.

El (1) *empoderamiento* hace referencia la capacidad de los líderes servidores de guiar a los trabajadores activamente hacia los objetivos que se proponen haciéndoles sentirse capaces de alcanzar éxito en las tareas laborales (Jones, 2012). Así, el liderazgo de servicio (2) *responsabiliza* a los trabajadores promoviendo la autonomía y cediendo poder en las tareas laborales asumiendo riesgos con (3) *coraje* en el

desarrollo de nuevas formas de resolver los desafíos (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011).

Este estilo de liderazgo promueve la (4) *aceptación interpersonal* donde se reconoce el valor individual de cada trabajador (Ehrhart, 2004) permitiendo que cada persona tenga confianza en el desarrollo de su autonomía al facilitar que los fallos sean considerados parte necesaria del aprendizaje y permaneciendo en un segundo plano en los éxitos (5) *cediendo los méritos* para que los trabajadores puedan percibir los frutos de su esfuerzo (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). Así, el liderazgo de servicio se relaciona desde la (6) *humildad* al mostrarse como alguien con sus virtudes y limitaciones (Dennis y Bocarnea, 2005) y siendo (7) *auténtico* a través de conductas coherentes con sus creencias y emociones (Laub, 1999). Si bien, estos líderes muestran una alta (8) *responsabilidad social* en la que se preocupan no sólo por sus trabajadores sino por desarrollo global de la organización desde una perspectiva ética (Liden y cols., 2008).

Los resultados de los análisis factoriales exploratorios y confirmatorios sustentan empíricamente los ocho factores propuestos y demuestran la validez de la escala en los dos países de aplicación, Holanda y Reino Unido (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). Sin embargo, se desconocen versiones validadas de la SLS en español que hayan estudiado sus propiedades psicométricas en diversas muestras hispanohablantes como Argentina, México o España. Por el contrario, el uso de un instrumento en distintas culturas necesita de adaptaciones más allá de la traducción de los ítems que incluyan un desarrollo adecuado de la medida adaptada al entorno cultural de modo de se pueda asegurar la validez de contenido del instrumento (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, y Ferraz, 2000). Por ello, en el presente trabajo se plantea como uno de los objetivos profundizar en la validez transcultural de la SLS en España, México y Argentina.

1.2.4. Estudios transculturales de la SLS

La investigación de van Dierendonck y Nuijten (2011) donde se presenta y valida la escala es en sí misma un estudio transcultural donde se muestra la validez del instrumento, incluyendo su estructura factorial, en dos países y lenguas distintas como son los Países Bajos (holandés) y Reino Unido (inglés). Estudios en otros países como Italia (Bobbio, van Dierendonck, y Manganelli, 2012) o Alemania (Verdorfer y Peus, 2014) también han validado la estructura inicial en adaptaciones de la escala a nuevas lenguas y con muestras de distintos países. Es más, un estudio transcultural reciente sobre la SLS en ocho países y lenguas europeos (Países Bajos, Portugal, Alemania, Islandia, Italia, España y Turquía) refuerza la validez de la escala y da apoyo a la invarianza configural y de medida transculturalmente (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017). A partir de estos datos es esperable que la SLS sea una medida válida en España, México y Argentina donde se replique la estructura factorial planteada en la versión original de la escala. Si bien, la cultura influye en cómo se percibe a los líderes y el liderazgo de servicio no es una excepción (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017) por lo que podrían esperarse diferencias en la representatividad del constructo entre los tres países y con muestras de países de estudios previos como Reino Unido, Países Bajos, o Italia. En efecto, el estudio llevado a cabo por (Bobbio y cols., 2012) en Italia mostró menores valores en las puntuaciones del liderazgo de servicio que las muestras de Reino Unido y Países Bajo en el estudio original de la escala.

A este respecto, cabe destacar el proyecto GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness; en español: Liderazgo Global y Efectividad del comportamiento organizacional) donde se plantea que las culturas difieren en aquellas características que valoran más en un líder (House, Hanges, Javidan,

Dorfman, y Gupta, 2004). Así, las diferencias entre las muestras de distintos países en las puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio se explicarían en base a los valores culturales subyacentes a cada nación (Mittal y Dorfman, 2012). Concretamente, desde este proyecto se plantean categorías culturales que representan agrupaciones de países con valores culturales homogéneos que explicarían la mayor o menor aceptación de ciertas características del liderazgo (House y cols., 2004; Mittal y Dorfman, 2012).

En base a esta categorización, España e Italia pertenecen a la categoría Latino europea, Argentina y México a la Latino americana, Reino Unido a la anglosajona y Países Bajos a la categoría germánico europea (Mittal y Dorfman, 2012). Las categorías Latino europea y Latino americana esperan líderes con niveles de participación y auto-protección medios mientras que las categorías Anglosajona y Germánico europea esperan líderes con bajos niveles de auto-protección y altos niveles de participación (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, y House, 2006). Es decir, los países como Holanda o Reino Unido esperarían, en mayor medida que España, México, Argentina o Italia, líderes que favoreciesen la participación activa de los trabajadores en las actividades laborales y que mostrasen actitudes de baja auto-protección que les permitiesen centrarse en los demás frente actitudes ególatras. Dado que estas características son representadas por los líderes de servicio (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011), sería esperable que las culturas española, mexicana y argentina mostrasen niveles más bajos de liderazgo de servicio que la cultura holandesa o la de Reino Unido, como se ha observado en el caso de Italia (Bobbio y cols., 2012).

Además de las diferencias con las muestras de los países de la versión original de la escala, también se esperan diferencias entre los tres países de interés (España, México y Argentina). A este respecto, los tres países difieren en los valores culturales en distancia de poder que implica que existen diferencias en los niveles de desigualdad

que esperan dentro de la jerárquica social (Hofstede, 2009). Específicamente, México y España muestran mayores niveles de distancia de poder que Argentina (Hofstede, 2009). En base a ello y a que las culturas con mayor distancia de poder se relacionan negativamente con las características del liderazgo de servicio (Mittal y Dorfman, 2012), se espera que México y España muestren menores niveles de liderazgo de servicio que Argentina.

1.3. LOS EFECTOS DEL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO

Además de que poder asegurar que el liderazgo de servicio resulte un constructo válido, un aspecto importante que se pretende en esta tesis es ahondar en el valor del constructo para predecir resultados deseables para el trabajador y la organización.

Observando los efectos del liderazgo de servicio, las investigaciones previas muestran que este estilo de liderazgo promueve relaciones laborales sanas que facilitan que los empleados se involucren y aumenten su compromiso con su trabajo y la organización (Carter y Baghurst, 2014). Es más, los trabajadores que perciben a su jefe como un líder servidor están más satisfechos con su trabajo (Mayer, Bardes, y Piccolo, 2008) y construyen mayores niveles de identificación con su líder (Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, y Cooper, 2014) y con la organización (Zhang, Kwong Kwan, Everett, y Jian, 2012).

Los líderes de servicio generan climas de confianza (Senjaya y Pekerti, 2010) y justicia (Mayer y cols., 2008). Bajo la guía de estos líderes, los trabajadores muestran conductas positivas involucrándose más allá de lo absolutamente necesario en su puesto de trabajo. Así, se observa que las personas que trabajan bajo líderes servidores muestran más conductas de ayuda (Neubert, Hunter, y Tolentino, 2015; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, y Roberts, 2008) y más conductas cívicas en la organización (Hunter y cols., 2013; Trong Tuan, 2017). Complementariamente,

también se puede observar que el liderazgo de servicio ayuda a prevenir que los trabajadores pierdan el compromiso con la empresa, muestren intenciones de llevar a cabo comportamientos laborales contraproducentes o de abandono de su puesto de trabajo (Hunter y cols., 2013).

No es de extrañar en base a dichos efectos en los trabajadores que se observe que los líderes de servicio favorecen un aumento del rendimiento a nivel del empleado, del grupo (i.e. tienda) (Hunter y cols., 2013) o incluso del rendimiento de la empresa (Huang, Li, Qiu, Yim, y Wan, 2016; Peterson, Galvin, y Lange, 2012). Sumado a que todos estos resultados empíricos muestran la importancia del liderazgo de servicio, un reciente meta-análisis llevado a cabo por (Hoch y cols., 2016) enfatiza dicha eficacia al señalar que este estilo de liderazgo presenta validez incremental en la predicción múltiples variables como la satisfacción laboral o los comportamientos cívicos organizacionales por encima de otros estilos de liderazgo como el transformacional, el ético o el auténtico.

Dada la relevancia de este estilo de liderazgo, en esta tesis se plantea profundizar en los efectos del liderazgo de servicio en los trabajadores y en los mecanismos explicativos de dichos efectos (ver Figura 1). Así, se cubre la necesidad planteada a los avances actuales sobre el estudio del liderazgo en base a la cual se reclama investigación para conocer la eficacia de los líderes atendiendo a su impacto en el comportamiento de los trabajadores (Avolio y cols., 2009). De hecho, la productividad se entiende como una función de los comportamientos de los empleados que incluiría los comportamientos relacionados con las tareas laborales, las conductas cívicas en las organizaciones y los comportamientos contraproducentes (v.g. Dunlop y Lee, 2004). Por ello, en esta tesis se plantea concretamente que el liderazgo de servicio puede favorecer la productividad a través de la promoción del alcance de metas y la

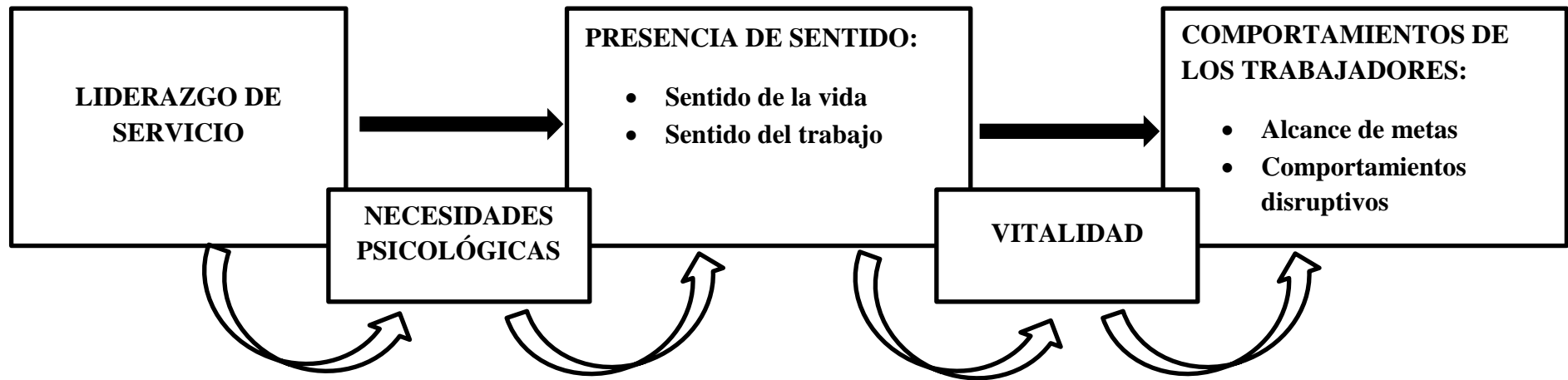


Figura 1. Modelo teórico de la tesis

prevención de la aparición de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes realizados por los trabajadores.

Con esta propuesta, esta tesis supone, en base a la literatura revisada, el único estudio dirigido hasta la fecha a examinar empíricamente la relación de los líderes servidores y el alcance de metas por parte de los trabajadores. Además, en el estudio de los efectos sobre los comportamientos laborales contraproducentes, se plantea la efectividad de los líderes en contextos de crisis. De este modo, la presente investigación amplía los conocimientos previos sobre el papel preventivo que los líderes de servicio ejercen en los comportamientos contraproducentes (e.g. Hunter y cols., 2013) a contextos donde la utilidad de estos líderes pese a ser deseable está por estudiar (Gerstein, Hertz, y Friedman, 2016).

Complementariamente al abordaje de la eficacia del liderazgo de servicio en la promoción de metas y la prevención de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes, la presente tesis tiene como objetivo ahondar en los mecanismos explicativos de dichos efectos. Específicamente, se plantea que los procesos de generación de sentido son el mecanismo fundamental en la efectividad de estos líderes (ver Figura 1).

A continuación, en los apartados 3.1 y 3.2 se explica la relación esperada entre el liderazgo de servicio y el alcance de metas y los comportamientos contraproducentes. Posteriormente, en el apartado 4 se presentan los procesos involucrados en la generación de sentido por parte del liderazgo de servicio y, en el apartado 5, se profundiza en el efecto del liderazgo de servicio en el alcance de metas y los comportamientos contraproducentes a través del papel mediador de los procesos de generación de sentido.

3.1. Promoción del Alcance de Metas

La promoción del alcance de metas puede facilitar en gran medida el éxito de los trabajadores y de la organización (Vansteenkiste y cols., 2007). Por ello, conocer los factores que faciliten la auto-regulación (i.e. el conjunto de procesos psicológicos que capacitan para guiar acciones dirigidas a metas) permite entender e intervenir en aquellos elementos involucrados en que las personas persistan o fracasen en aquello que se proponen (Baumeister y Vohs, 2007).

Desde las bases teóricas sobre el liderazgo de servicio, se establece específicamente que este estilo de liderazgo se centra en facilitar que los trabajadores alcancen las metas que se proponen (Greenleaf, 1977). Por ello, se espera que el liderazgo de servicio facilite los procesos de auto-regulación en la promoción del alcance de metas. Pese a ser un supuesto de la teoría sobre liderazgo de servicio, se desconoce la existencia de trabajos empíricos que demuestren esta relación. Bien si no, trabajos cualitativos sobre la valía de este estilo de liderazgo ofrecen información en relación a lo esperado dado que indican que los trabajadores parecen involucrarse activamente en conseguir las metas organizacionales bajo la guía de estos líderes (Carter y Baghurst, 2014).

En base a lo expuesto, el presente trabajo contribuye a la investigación del liderazgo de servicio profundizando en los supuestos teóricos en los que se sustenta al estudiar la relación de este liderazgo con el alcance de metas. Es más, con los procesos de generación de sentido que se plantearán en los puntos 4 y 5, se profundiza en los mecanismos de eficacia de los líderes servidores que pueden facilitar que los trabajadores se auto-regulen eficazmente hacia sus metas personales.

1.3.2. Prevención de la Aparición de Comportamientos Laborales Contraproducentes

Además de la promoción de resultados deseables, el liderazgo de servicio promueve la prevención de conductas indeseables en el contexto organizacional (e.g. Hunter y cols., 2013). A este respecto, se espera que el liderazgo de servicio favorezca la prevención de la aparición de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes.

Los comportamientos laborales contraproducentes o comportamientos disruptivos hacen referencia a conductas voluntarias que se salen de las normas y estándares organizacionales y ponen en riesgo el bienestar de la organización o las personas relacionadas con la misma (Robinson y Bennett, 1995). En base a quién van dirigidas, estas conductas se pueden agrupar como comportamientos disruptivos organizacionales, dirigidos contra la compañía, o comportamientos disruptivos interpersonales, dirigidos hacia otras personas relacionadas con la organización (ej. compañeros de trabajo o clientes). En esta tesis, nos centramos en los comportamientos disruptivos dirigidos contra la organización y, de aquí en adelante, el término abreviado de comportamiento contraproducente o disruptivo se utilizará para referir específicamente estas conductas contra la empresa.

Los comportamientos contraproducentes son conductas que incluyen aspectos como el llegar intencionalmente tarde o trabajar menos de lo que sería adecuado y posible en el puesto de trabajo. Estas conductas son indicadores de rendimiento del trabajador y suponen un alto coste para la organización repercutiendo en la productividad de la empresa (Dunlop y Lee, 2004). Prevenir e intervenir en los factores que las provocan es un aspecto clave para la mejora del bienestar laboral y el desarrollo de la organización (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007; Pircher Verdorfer, Steinheider, y Burkus, 2015).

Los comportamientos disruptivos tienden a aparecer sobretodo como respuesta a situaciones laborales impuestas en las que se percibe que la organización está promoviendo un trato desfavorable y poco ético hacia los empleados (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007; Pircher Verdorfer y cols., 2015). Específicamente, los líderes de servicio pueden prevenir la aparición de estas conductas al proveer un contexto basado en el cuidado de los empleados y su empoderamiento desde un alto compromiso ético de confianza y justicia (Pircher Verdorfer y cols., 2015).

En efecto, los estudios empíricos hasta la fecha señalan que el liderazgo de servicio puede ser un factor organizacional clave para prevenir la aparición de los comportamientos contraproducentes en contextos generales (Neubert y cols., 2008; Pircher Verdorfer y cols., 2015). Así, un paso añadido que se plantea en esta tesis es estudiar esta relación en contextos en los que las conductas disruptivas pueden tender a aparecer con mayor probabilidad, como son las crisis organizacionales en las que la organización se percibe como responsable de la crisis.

Los contextos de crisis organizacionales señalan eventos inesperados que impactan negativamente en la percepción de la organización que tienen los trabajadores y otras personas relacionadas con la misma, y ponen en riesgo la productividad o la sostenibilidad de la organización (Coombs, 2007). Estos contextos son situaciones negativas impuestas sobre los trabajadores que por sus características pueden provocar un aumento de los comportamientos disruptivos. Específicamente, las crisis podrían provocar el incremento de estos comportamientos en la medida en que el comportamiento de la organización se percibe como poco ético, promoviendo la creación de sentido con contenido negativo sobre la relación con la organización (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007).

Pese al desafío que suponen estos contextos, en esta tesis se plantea que los líderes de servicio podrían prevenir los comportamientos contraproducentes al promover un clima protector durante las crisis. Así, las características de estos líderes éticos y centrados en las necesidades de los trabajadores podrían hacerlos especialmente efectivos en contextos de crisis (Gabriel, 2015) al intervenir directamente en los factores contextuales que podrían favorecer el incremento de los comportamientos disruptivos (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007).

1.4. EL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO COMO GENERADOR DE SENTIDO

En este punto, cabe plantear cuáles son los procesos por los cuales los líderes de servicio pueden ser efectivos en la promoción del alcance de metas y la prevención de los comportamientos contraproducentes, estos últimos especialmente en situaciones de crisis organizacional. En esta tesis se propone que los mecanismos fundamentales de la eficacia de los líderes servidores estriban en promover la generación de sentido en los empleados, en línea con propuestas teóricas anteriores (e.g. Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010; Irving y Berndt, 2017; Wong y Davey, 2007).

A continuación se profundiza en la conceptualización del sentido, cómo lo facilitan los líderes de servicio y los procesos consecuentes.

1.4.1. ¿Qué es el sentido?

El constructo de sentido es difícil de definir aunque es un elemento central a la vida humana (Park, 2010). Aproximándonos al constructo, podemos definir el sentido como representaciones mentales que conectan información sobre eventos, relaciones, o cosas (Baumeister, 1991). Así, los procesos de generación de sentido consisten en

integrar las experiencias personales en las representaciones mentales previas construyendo nuevos marcos de sentido que permiten entender el contexto como lleno de valor y significado (Park, 2010).

Concretamente, la presencia de sentido o “*meaningfulness*” (de aquí en adelante sentido o presencia de sentido) define la experiencia subjetiva de que la vida o algún contexto vital está lleno de valor junto con la sensación de que se tiene una orientación clara de la propia conducta en la que las acciones se dirigen a objetivos deseados y con significado valioso (Park, 2010; Rosso, Dekas, y Wrzesniewski, 2010). La presencia de sentido puede diferenciarse de la búsqueda de sentido (i.e., los intentos de aumentar la sensación de que algo tiene un significado valioso con respecto a los marcos de sentido personales) o de las fuentes individuales del mismo (Rosso y cols., 2010; Steger, Frazier, Oishi, y Kaler, 2006). Así, específicamente la presencia de sentido parece ser una variable clave para explicar la motivación y el rendimiento de los trabajadores (e.g. Humphrey, Nahrgang, y Morgeson, 2007, para meta-análisis) aunque su estudio en el campo organizacional sigue siendo escaso (Dent, Higgins, y Wharff, 2005).

Un aspecto importante a tener en cuenta es que la presencia de sentido depende del dominio o contexto al que se refiere. Así, la presencia de sentido puede ser global, entendida como sentido de la vida, o referida a un contexto o dominio específico, como el significado del trabajo (Steger y Dik, 2009).

1.4.1.1. Sentido de la vida o sentido vital

El sentido de la vida o sentido vital hace referencia a la valoración subjetiva global de que la vida tiene transcendencia y está llena de significado (Steger y cols., 2006) de modo que se percibe que las conductas tienen coherencia y permiten caminar hacia valores o metas de importante valor personal (Diener y cols., 1999).

Cada vez más, la investigación refuerza el valor del estudio del sentido vital para el desarrollo humano. Así, el sentido de la vida se relaciona con importantes variables personales de bienestar y salud, incluidos menores niveles de mortalidad (e.g. Roepke, Jayawickreme, y Riffle, 2014; para revisión). En trabajadores, el sentido de la vida es un factor con un alto nivel de predicción de resultados organizacionales, incluyendo el rendimiento (Humphrey y cols., 2007, para meta-análisis).

1.4.1.2. Sentido del trabajo

Más allá de la búsqueda de una retribución económica, el trabajo es un contexto de gran importancia para las personas siendo una de las fuentes más importantes de sentido (Morse y Weiss, 1955). El sentido del trabajo hace referencia a la experiencia positiva subjetiva de que el trabajo está lleno de significado, que contribuye y sirve a un bien mayor y a que la vida, en general, tenga sentido (Steger, Dik, y Duffy, 2012).

Como en el caso de la presencia de sentido de la vida, el sentido del trabajo se muestra como un factor clave del bienestar de las personas (Varga y cols., 2012). Esta variable es un destacado mediador explicativo para esclarecer porqué las personas pueden involucrarse profundamente en el trabajo (Woods y Sofat, 2013) e incluso enfrentarse y continuar en contextos de trabajo difíciles (Varga y cols., 2012).

Pese a su notoria importancia, el estudio del sentido, tanto vital como del trabajo, a nivel organizacional sigue siendo escaso y sigue siendo necesario realizar investigación dirigida a entender los procesos de generación de sentido en este campo concreto (Dent y cols., 2005).

1.4.2. ¿Cómo se facilitan los procesos de generación de sentido en el contexto laboral?

El entorno de trabajo es clave para entender la generación de sentido tanto del propio trabajo como del conjunto de nuestras vidas (Emmons, 2003; Morse y Weiss, 1955). En este entorno, los líderes pueden actuar como agentes decisivos en la promoción de un contexto laboral favorecedor de la generación de sentido (Rosso y cols., 2010). Concretamente, el liderazgo de servicio plantea un enfoque en la individualidad de cada trabajador que hace que este liderazgo pueda sobresalir en el objetivo de la generación de sentido desde el contexto laboral (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010; Irving y Berndt, 2017; van Dierendonck y Patterson, 2014).

1.4.2.1. El rol del liderazgo de servicio en la generación de sentido

El liderazgo de servicio podría facilitar la creación de sentido entre sus empleados (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010). El énfasis de estos líderes en la promoción individual de cada trabajador y su alto compromiso ético en la dirección de la organización hacia un bien mayor se proponen como factores claves para la promoción de sentido (van Dierendonck y Patterson, 2014).

La generación de sentido es un proceso activo que necesita que las personas 1) tengan un propósito de valor que guía su acciones y 2) que se perciban como valiosas y competentes en su relación con el entorno (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002). Con respecto al primer aspecto, el liderazgo de servicio podría facilitar la generación de sentido al promover un contexto laboral donde las acciones se adscriben a propósitos llenos de significado y valor. Así, cabe destacar que el liderazgo de servicio se caracteriza por una gran compromiso por el futuro de la organización que hace que guíe el desarrollo de la misma en base a valores éticos (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, y Henderson, 2008). Como señalan Baumeister y Vohs (2002), este aspecto es

fundamental en la creación de sentido. Así, se plantea que las personas necesitamos tener claros los valores de referencia que permitan guiar y dirigir nuestra conducta (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002). Por todo ello, los líderes servidores favorecen una guía propositiva clara que puede favorecer la generación de sentido.

En relación al segundo aspecto, los líderes servidores podrían facilitar que las personas persigan los propósitos llenos de significado desde un contexto que facilita la percepción de que son personas capaces y valiosas en sí mismas. A este respecto, estos líderes parten de un modelo de influencia donde los trabajadores son lo más importante (Robert K. Greenleaf, 1977), y es que el líder servidor facilita un contexto donde cada persona es empoderada para ser autónoma y activa en su propio desarrollo (van Dierendonck, 2011). Específicamente, estos líderes guían al trabajador a obtener lo mejor de sí mismo, permitiéndole observar y disfrutar de los éxitos de su progreso y permitiendo la comisión de errores desde un entorno de confianza (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, y Henderson, 2008; van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). A través de estos comportamientos, los líderes servidores promueven un contexto que enfatiza el trabajo activo y reconoce el valor individual de cada empleado. Este entorno posibilita las claves propuestas por Baumeister y Vohs (2002) para la generación de sentido a través de favorecer que los trabajadores se perciban valiosos en sí mismos y, desde su autonomía, capaces de adaptar activamente su entorno a sus metas personales. Así, el liderazgo de servicio promovería que las personas se sintiesen valoradas y fuesen incluso agentes activos capaces de la creación de sentido desde el contexto laboral (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010).

1.4.2.2. Los procesos de autorregulación en la generación de sentido

En el proceso de generación de sentido facilitado por los líderes de servicio, se espera tanto un efecto directo de los líderes de servicio, -comentado

anteriorente-, como un efecto indirecto en el que los trabajadores desplieguen procesos individuales de auto-regulación que expliquen dicho proceso.

Desde la Teoría de la Auto-determinación, se plantea que específicamente la motivación es uno de esos factores clave para explicar la energía y persistencia en las actividades de la vida y el trabajo y, por ende, del desarrollo completo de las personas (SDT, por sus siglas en inglés, *Self-Determination Theory*; Ryan y Deci, 2000). Concretamente, la SDT plantea que las personas verán aumentada su motivación y, por tanto, iniciarán y mantendrán sus acciones en la medida que persigan resultados o metas deseables que sean coherentes con sus valores y creencias frente a motivaciones externas (Deci y Ryan, 2000).

Desde la SDT se ha planteado que los procesos de creación de sentido se darán en mayor medida cuando la persona pueda desenvolverse en los diferentes contextos de su vida en relación a sus valores y metas personales frente a factores externos (Weinstein y cols., 2012). De hecho, como se ha descrito anteriormente, las personas sienten que su vida o su trabajo tiene sentido cuando perciben que su conducta les permite dirigirse a la consecución de metas y objetivos llenos de significado personal (Park, 2010; Rosso y cols., 2010). Por ello, las personas podrían sentir sus contextos vitales llenos de sentido cuando su relación con el mundo les permita ser coherentes con sus creencias, propósitos y valores, es decir, cuando puedan realizar una integración personal de su vida, no promovida por motivaciones externas (Weinstein y cols., 2012).

En este punto, cabe plantearse los procesos de auto-regulación autónoma que podría fomentar el liderazgo de servicio para favorecer la presencia de sentido, también de manera indirecta. A continuación, se profundiza en el papel de la satisfacción de las

necesidades psicológicas básicas como facilitador de estos procesos de auto-regulación (ver Figura 1).

1.4.2.2.1. La satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas

Desde la SDT se plantea que el grado en que las personas sienten satisfechas sus necesidades psicológicas básicas es un factor fundamental para explicar la motivación humana en la búsqueda y alcance de objetivos (Deci y Ryan, 2000). Estas necesidades básicas descritas por Deci y Ryan (2000) son 1) la necesidad de autonomía, 2) la necesidad de competencia, y 3) la necesidad de relación. La *necesidad de autonomía* describe la necesidad de sentir que controlamos e influimos directamente sobre el inicio y desarrollo de nuestra conducta. La *necesidad de competencia* se refiere a la necesidad de sentir que tenemos la capacidad de controlar nuestra conducta para alcanzar las metas que nos proponemos. Por último, la *necesidad de relación* se refiere a la necesidad de sentirnos conectados con los demás (Deci y Ryan, 2000). La satisfacción de estas tres necesidades permite sentir que la conducta está motivada de manera autónoma, dirigida hacia metas y valores propios, haciendo más efectiva la auto-regulación y permitiendo el bienestar y el desarrollo completo de las personas (Deci y cols., 2001; Ryan y Deci, 2000).

En este desarrollo completo de la persona, la SDT plantea que el hecho de que las necesidades básicas puedan ser elementos críticos para sentir que se dirige la conducta hacia metas y propósitos personales podría favorecer la presencia de sentido (Weinstein y cols., 2012). Desde esta perspectiva, la satisfacción de las necesidades de autonomía, competencia y relación en los distintos contextos vitales permite percibir dichos contextos (ej. trabajo) como congruentes con los valores propios y llenos de sentido (Chiniara y Bentein, 2016).

A nivel empírico, las investigaciones señalan que en efecto la satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas básicas está ligada a la presencia de sentido (Church y cols., 2012; Eakman, 2014). Sin embargo, esta investigación se ha dirigido a la población en general no conociéndose investigaciones que hayan profundizado en esta relación en el contexto organizacional. Por el contrario, la investigación señala la importancia de los procesos de auto-regulación ligados a las necesidades básicas para explicar la conducta de las personas en su relación con el trabajo (Deci y cols., 2001) y la importancia de conocer los factores organizacionales que pueden ayudar a satisfacerlas (Gillet, Fouquereau, Forest, Brunault, y Colombat, 2012).

Entre estos factores organizacionales, el liderazgo de servicio se ha mostrado especialmente eficaz en la promoción de las necesidades psicológicas de los trabajadores (Chiniara y Bentein, 2016; Mayer y cols., 2008; van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, y Alkema, 2014). En esta línea, los líderes de servicio han sido propuestos como líderes que específicamente proporcionan *autonomía* a sus trabajadores para que alcancen las metas que por iniciativa personal se propongan (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, y Henderson, 2008). De hecho, satisfaciendo la necesidad de ser autónomo permitirían crear sentido de manera activa adaptando las metas y la conducta hacia valores importantes para uno mismo (Deci y Ryan, 2000). Al mismo tiempo, los líderes servidores podrían satisfacer la necesidad de *competencia* al dotar de valor a cada empleado facilitando los recursos necesarios para que alcancen sus metas y permitiendo que observen y disfruten de los frutos de su trabajo sin miedo a equivocarse (van Dierendonck, 2011). De este modo, el liderazgo de servicio favorecería la sensación de valía personal en el que la persona siente que es capaz de desarrollarse hacia aquello que valora, lo cual es un aspecto clave para la promoción del sentido (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002). Además, los líderes de servicio denotan un

énfasis en el desarrollo de relaciones auténticas y de cuidado de todas las personas relacionadas con la organización que promueve la satisfacción de la necesidad de *relación* (van Dierendonck y cols., 2014). De hecho, los líderes de servicio guían a sus trabajadores desde un desarrollo ético teniendo en cuenta una visión de futuro por encima del bien a sí mismos en lo que lo importante es facilitar el bienestar de las personas (Robert K. Greenleaf, 1977). Así los líderes de servicio favorecerían a través de la satisfacción de la necesidad de relación que los trabajadores sintiesen que su conducta se dirige hacia las personas y por el bien de las personas. Este aspecto supone tener la sensación de que se contribuye a un bien mayor, lo que puede facilitar la generación de sentido (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002).

En resumen, en este apartado se ha planteado que el liderazgo de servicio no tiene sólo un efecto directo en la promoción de sentido de los trabajadores sino un efecto indirecto añadido a través de la satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas. Otro elemento fundamental facilitador de los procesos de auto-regulación autónoma recogido en la literatura es la vitalidad. A continuación, se expone en qué medida el liderazgo servidor promueve procesos de vitalidad de manera indirecta a través de los procesos de auto-regulación autónoma nucleares en la presencia de sentido (ver Figura 1).

1.4.2.2.2. La promoción de la vitalidad

La vitalidad define la experiencia positiva y subjetiva de que se tiene energía, se está lleno/a de vida y dinamismo a nivel físico y mental (Ryan y Frederick, 1997). La vitalidad es considerado un elemento clave del bienestar hedónico (i.e. el grado en que una persona se acerca al funcionamiento óptimo; Ryan y Deci, 2001) que se relaciona con diferentes indicadores de salud y bienestar en la población general (Ryan y Deci, 2008) y en trabajadores (Zacher, Brailsford, y Parker, 2014).

Así, en esta tesis se plantea que los líderes de servicio pueden favorecer el contexto para que las personas lleguen a mayor desarrollo óptimo expresado como mayor vitalidad a través de favorecer los procesos de generación de sentido. Para explicar esta afirmación se proponen dos modelos explicativos complementarios.

El primer modelo se basa en la teoría de Ampliación y Construcción de Recursos (BBT por sus siglas en inglés, Broaden-and-Build Theory Fredrickson, 2000). Desde esta teoría se ha observado que los recursos de las personas ligados a su bienestar pueden llevar a la generación de nuevos recursos y mayor bienestar, al mismo tiempo que reducen los efectos adversos de las experiencias negativas (e.g., Henderson, Knight, y Richardson, 2013). De este modo, se espera que la promoción del sentido permita promover otros aspectos ligados al desarrollo completo de la persona como es la vitalidad.

Paralelamente, el segundo modelo explicativo explica por qué se espera que específicamente la promoción de sentido conlleve mayores niveles de vitalidad. A este respecto, Ryan y Deci (2008) plantean que aquellas personas que regulan su conducta de manera más autónoma, es decir, regida en torno a sus propios valores y metas, alcanzan mayores niveles de vitalidad. En este sentido, aquellas personas que dirigen su conducta de forma autónoma hacia lo que desean se espera que inviertan menos recursos para auto-regularse y se sientan más vitales (Muraven, Gagné, y Rosman, 2008; Ryan y Deci, 2008). Por ello y dado que en las personas, la presencia de sentido está ligada a sentir que se está motivado autónomamente hacia el alcance de las metas que se desean (Weinstein y cols., 2012), se espera que la presencia de sentido lleve a mayores niveles de vitalidad al percibir que se dirige la conducta en base a los valores o metas personales.

En resumen, en base a ambos aspectos se espera que los líderes de servicio favorezcan que los trabajadores se sientan más activos y llenos de energía gracias a percibir que su contexto vital está lleno de sentido.

1.5. PROMOCIÓN Y PREVENCIÓN DE CONDUCTAS A PARTIR DE LA GENERACIÓN DE SENTIDO

Los procesos de generación de sentido se espera por tanto que sean la clave explicativa de los resultados previstos del liderazgo de servicio en el alcance de metas y en la emergencia o no de conductas disruptivas contra la organización (ver Figura 1). Los líderes de servicio pueden promover el alcance de metas al facilitar mediante la presencia de sentido procesos de auto-regulación autónomos. En esta línea, se ha propuesto anteriormente que las personas con mayores niveles de sentido percibirían sus acciones como motivadas de manera autónoma al percibir que pueden desarrollar su conducta en relación a las metas y valores que ellas mismas consideran importantes (Weinstein y cols., 2012). En efecto, este tipo de procesos autónomamente regulados en los que el comportamiento es coherente con valores personales permite que las personas alcancen con mayor facilidad la metas que se proponen (Bono y Judge, 2014) y se espera que, en esta línea, el sentido no sea una excepción (de Klerk, 2005; Weinstein y cols., 2012). Por ello, se propone que los líderes servidores pueden ser claves en la promoción de metas en base a facilitar la auto-regulación mediante los procesos de generación de sentido.

Paralelamente, los líderes de servicio pueden prevenir la aparición de comportamientos disruptivos contra la organización en contextos de crisis al facilitar la creación de sentido. En esta línea, se ha referido con anterioridad que uno de los

aspectos que pueden provocar los comportamientos contraproducentes en crisis es que se genere un significado negativo de la organización y la relación con la misma (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007). Así, estas conductas aparecen como reacciones ante un contexto que se percibe negativo y contra uno mismo (Pircher Verdorfer y cols., 2015).

A este nivel, los líderes pueden proteger el sentido del que se dota al contexto laboral haciendo que sea menos probable que se den comportamientos contraproducentes (Jelinek y Ahearne, 2010). Dado que específicamente los líderes de servicio se han propuesto como líderes que pueden cuidar los procesos de generación de sentido de sus empleados (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010) y concretamente efectivos en contextos de crisis (Gabriel, 2015), se espera que este estilo de liderazgo prevenga la aparición de estos comportamientos dañinos al promover y preservar un marco laboral lleno de sentido incluso ante crisis organizacionales. De hecho, dado que la prevención de la aparición de comportamientos disruptivos está ligada a la capacidad de los empleados de regular su conducta (Neves y Champion, 2015), los procesos de generación de sentido permitirían que las personas se percibieran motivadas autónomamente favoreciendo que fuesen más efectivas en el control de su comportamiento (Weinstein y cols., 2012).

En resumen, los procesos de generación de sentido promovidos por el liderazgo de servicio podrían facilitar la conducta auto-regulada hacia el alcance de metas y prevenir la aparición de conductas disruptivas.

1.6. EL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO Y LA INDIVIDUALIDAD: EL ROL DE LA PERSONALIDAD PROACTIVA

Hasta ahora se ha planteado la eficacia y los mecanismos explicativos del liderazgo de servicio en relación al conjunto de trabajadores. Si bien, cabe destacar que no todos los estilos de liderazgo son igual de útiles para todos los empleados (Liden y Graen, 1980; Werbel y Henriques, 2009) y cabría esperar un efecto diferencial del liderazgo de servicio en función de algunas características de los trabajadores (Donia, Raja, Panaccio y Wang, 2016). A pesar de ello, casi todos los estudios que se conocen hasta la fecha presuponen que el liderazgo de servicio tiene efectos similares para todos los empleados. De hecho, en base a la literatura revisada, la investigación sobre el papel de las diferencias individuales de los trabajadores en los efectos del liderazgo de servicio es escasa y sigue siendo necesaria más investigación al respecto (Donia y cols., 2016; Newman, Schwarz, Cooper y Sendjaya, 2015).

Específicamente, la proactividad es una característica individual que podría ser clave como moderadora de los efectos del liderazgo de servicio (Newman y cols., 2015). La personalidad proactiva hace referencia a la tendencia relativamente estable de actuar sobre el contexto y adaptarlo a las propias necesidades (Bateman y Crant, 1993). A nivel laboral, esta característica se relaciona con aspectos como mayor motivación, mayor adaptación al trabajo, mayor éxito profesional, mayor bienestar o mayor rendimiento (e.g., Fuller y Marler, 2009), pero sigue siendo escasa la información sobre cómo las personas proactivas reaccionan frente a distintos estilos liderazgo, incluyendo el liderazgo de servicio (Newman y cols., 2015).

La investigación inicial sobre la relación del liderazgo de servicio y la personalidad proactiva indica que aquellas personas con mayores niveles de proactividad tienden a

beneficiarse más de la guía de un líder servidor (Newman y cols., 2015). Como se ha comentado con anterioridad, una de las claves de los líderes servidores estriba en fomentar la autonomía cediendo responsabilidad y promoviendo que los empleados consigan los propósitos personales que valoran (van Dierendonck, 2011). De este modo, los comportamientos del liderazgo de servicio se centran en favorecer que el trabajador construya de manera activa mayores niveles de sentido (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010). En este contexto, las personas con mayor proactividad podrían desarrollar más sentido dado que son personas que destacan por su capacidad para identificar y cambiar activamente las situaciones para dirigir las hacia sus metas e intereses personales (Randler, 2009). De hecho, las personas proactivas tienden a ver las situaciones como oportunidades para crecer y sobre las que pueden actuar para alcanzar objetivos valiosos que aumenten la presencia de sentido (Steger y Kashdan, 2007). Así, contemplan las experiencias vitales como oportunidades para el desarrollo activo de una vida completa y llena de sentido (Schwarzer y Taubert, 2002; Steger y Kashdan, 2007) que les permiten alcanzar mayores niveles de sentido vital (Kashdan, y Steger, 2007).

En resumen, se propone que el liderazgo de servicio puede promover mayores niveles de sentido, siendo éste un contexto especialmente favorable para las personas proactivas.

1.7. OBJETIVOS DE LA TESIS

1) Profundizar en el constructo de liderazgo de servicio y validar la Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio (SLS) transculturalmente en España, México y Argentina.

2) Estudiar la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio en los procesos de auto-regulación de los empleados atendiendo a la promoción del alcance de metas y la prevención de los comportamientos laborales contraproducentes.

3) Estudiar el papel del liderazgo de servicio en la generación de sentido. Específicamente, se espera dar luz a la promoción de sentido de la vida y del sentido del trabajo por parte de estos líderes.

4) Estudiar las necesidades psicológicas como mecanismos explicativos de la generación de sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

5) Estudiar la vitalidad como recurso de auto-regulación facilitado por la generación de sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

6) Estudiar el papel moderador de la proactividad en la generación del sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

7) Estudiar la efectividad de los líderes de servicio en contextos generales y en contextos de crisis.

1.8. DESCRIPCIÓN GENERAL DE LOS ESTUDIOS INCLUIDOS EN LA TESIS DOCTORAL

La tesis doctoral que aquí se expone está compuesta de tres estudios que se presentan a continuación en tres capítulos diferenciados.

El primer estudio va dirigido a profundizar en la naturaleza del constructo de liderazgo de servicio y a la obtención de un instrumento válido para su medición. Con este interés, este primer estudio aborda la validación transcultural en España, México y Argentina de la Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio (SLS; van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011) donde se analizan las propiedades psicométricas de la escala y la validez convergente del constructo en relación a la identificación organizacional y el estrés de rol.

El segundo estudio va dirigido a profundizar en los procesos de generación de sentido de los líderes de servicio en la promoción del alcance de metas laborales. Concretamente, este estudio plantea investigar desde una metodología de diario cómo percibir diariamente al jefe como un líder de servicio puede facilitar la generación de sentido de la vida y mayores niveles de vitalidad llegando a facilitar que los trabajadores alcancen sus metas día a día.

Finalmente, el tercer estudio engloba tres experimentos distintos dirigidos a dar un paso más profundizando en cómo los líderes de servicio favorecen la generación de sentido incluyendo las necesidades psicológicas como un posible mecanismo explicativo. En este último estudio, también se avanza en la investigación sobre el liderazgo de servicio al centrar la atención en contextos no normativos, como las crisis organizacionales, y en los comportamientos contraproducentes como conductas especialmente posibles en dichos contextos.

CHAPTER 2:

LEADING PEOPLE POSITIVELY: CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION OF THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP SURVEY (SLS)

Rodríguez-Carvajal, R.¹, de Rivas, S.¹, Herrero, M.¹, Moreno-Jiménez, B.¹, van Dierendonck, D.²

¹ Autonoma University of Madrid (Spain)

² Erasmus University Rotterdam (The Netherlands)

Published in The Spanish Journal of Psychology in 2014

Abstract - Chapter 2

Servant Leadership emphasises employee's development and growth within a context of moral and social concern. Nowadays, this management change towards workers' wellbeing is highlighted as an important issue. The aims of this paper are to adapt to Spanish speakers the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), and to analyse its factorial validity through confirmatory factor analysis and measurement invariance in three countries. A sample of 638 working people from three Spanish-speaking countries (Spain, Argentina and Mexico) participated in the study. In all three countries, confirmatory factor analyses corroborate the eight factor structure (empowerment, accountability, standing back, humility, authenticity, courage, forgiveness and stewardship) with one second order factor (servant leadership). Also, factor loadings, reliability and convergent validity were acceptable across samples. Furthermore, through measurement invariance analysis, we detected model equivalence in all three countries including structural residual invariance. Finally, cultural differences in some dimensions were found and discussed, opening the way for future cross-cultural studies.

Keywords: servant leadership, cross-cultural, positive organizational psychology, measurement invariance analysis

2.1. LEADING PEOPLE POSITIVELY: CROSS-CULTURAL VALIDATION OF THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP SURVEY (SLS)

The current way of organizing and working together in organizations is undergoing continual change. Organizations face challenges and difficulties to which they must adapt in order to be competitive, particularly when facing the current recession, new technology improvements, merges and differences that come with a global market, and changes in both customer and employee needs and values (Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 2010). At the same time, there is an increasing demand for a more ethical people-centred management (van Dierendonck, 2011), a management that can combine the constant demand for efficiency and efficacy with a moral focus. Within this context, leadership has been pinpointed as a key factor to achieving committed workers as well as prosperous organizations (Luthans, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011).

In this line, servant leadership (SL) may play an important contribution in achieving those goals. At this respect, SL has been proposed as a leadership style specifically focused on people and their development (Greenleaf, 1977). Greenleaf described a servant leader as follows: “The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead.” (Spears, 1998, p. 1). Therefore, a servant leader is one who is mainly concerned about his followers (Greenleaf, 1977). In contrast to other leadership theories as for example transformational leadership, inspiring leadership or Level 5 leadership, SL makes explicit the moral and social concerns and it sets first followers’ needs even over organizational goals (Hunter et al., 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011). In its application, this leadership has been observed to be related to effective performance,

organizational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, commitment and the appearance of organizational trust climate, among others (e.g. Hunter et al., 2013; van Dierendonck, 2010, for review).

Based on its value, the global context brings also the challenge of studying SL within a cross-cultural setting so that attention for possible culture differences should be brought to the front (de Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). Recently, Mittal and Dorfman (2012) conducted the first study that made a comprehensive empirical examination of servant leadership dimensions across cultures. A major implication of their study is that servant leadership was viewed as being very important for effective leadership across all the 59 studied societies that included Anglo, Confucian Asia, Eastern Europe, Germanic Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Middle East, Nordic Europe, Southern Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa cultures. Considering that the Spanish language is the second most spoken one in the world, and the notable growth of Latin American countries, the aim of the present study is to increase the knowledge about the Servant Leadership (SL) and possible cultural nuances in three Spanish speaking countries. In doing so, we adapted and validated the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS: van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), in three different Spanish samples: Mexico, Argentina and Spain. The reliability and factorial validity of the instrument were studied by means of confirmatory factor analysis. To show the equivalence of the SLS version in all three countries we run measurement invariance analysis considering in any case the cultural differences between the countries. Finally, convergent validity was also studied through Pearson correlations between SLS, role stress and organizational identification in Spain and Mexico.

2.1.1. Why a servant leader?

A recent review by Avolio and his colleagues (Avolio et al., 2009) showed that research into leadership has changed its focus from the leader himself to a wider context which includes followers, colleagues, supervisors, the work environment and even the culture of the organization itself. However, it turns out interesting that over more than thirty years ago, Greenleaf (1977) already developed the concept of servant leadership that primarily focuses on followers and the social context. Servant leadership theory adds this human and social component, placing the emphasis on the employees and their well-being (van Dierendonck, 2011) more than on organizational profits. As such it is not surprising that recent studies have stressed its potential for a more ethical approach, highly demanded in the labour context on present-day organizations (i.e. Parris & Peachey, 2013). That's why, the first measurement instruments became available recently (see van Dierendonck, 2011, for an overview). In our research, we focus on the SLS developed by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), which incorporates 30 items divided over eight factors. These eight factors are: empowerment, accountability, standing back, humility, authenticity, courage, forgiveness (acceptance of others) and stewardship.

Empowerment is one of the central criteria of SL and refers to the ability of the leader to develop in his employees a proactive and confident attitude which affords them a greater sense of power and control (Laub, 1999). *Accountability* is about not only encouraging employees and giving them a sense of competence, but also explicitly making them responsible for their results. This guarantees that followers know what is expected of them and, at the same time, demonstrate confidence of the leader in them. Along the same lines, another of the main characteristics is the ability to *stand back*, awarding priority to the interests and achievements of others, remaining in the

background when a task has been performed successfully. Related to this is the characteristic of *humility* which represents the ability to value with the appropriate perspective, one's own talents and achievements (Patterson, 2003), realizing that no-one is infallible and we all make mistakes. On the other hand, a servant leader also shows *authenticity*, consistently expressing to others his feelings and thoughts (Harter, 2002) in such a way that his role as a professional is not above whom he is as a person (Halpin & Croft, 1966). Likewise, *courage* or daring to take risks and try out new ways of solving old problems is one of the characteristics of the servant leader, and is, moreover, essential for innovation and creativity. *Forgiveness* refers to the ability of the leader to empathize with his employees and understand their circumstances (George, 2000), to be able to forgive their disputes and mistakes, thereby creating an atmosphere of confidence (Ferch, 2005). Finally, another of the significant characteristics is the desire to accept responsibility for where the institution itself is heading, to care for it, to demonstrate loyalty and team work, being careful to serve and assist instead of taking control and looking out for one's own interests (Spears, 1995). This characteristic is known as *stewardship*.

Research so far showed that the SLS has good factorial validity and internal consistency. Conceptually, it is a measure that comes closer to van Dierendonck's (2011) theory of SL behaviour. The SLS was developed and validated with a sample of 1,571 people from eight different samples, from two different countries (The Netherlands and the United Kingdom) and from a variety of labour environments. The combination of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses resulted with eight measurement dimensions. Recently, the factorial validity of this measure has also been validated within an Italian sample of 808 employees (Bobbio et al., 2012).

In the same line, it is expected that the factorial structure of the SLS will be replicated in each of the Spanish-speaking countries with appropriate reliability indices (hypothesis 1). Furthermore, our aim is to show the equivalence of SLS factor structure in the three countries through measurement invariance analysis, in order to ensure that differences in mean values were not due to instrument bias (Byrne, 2010). When conducting cross-cultural studies, it is essential to first demonstrate the measurement equivalence of questionnaires (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), before assuming that variables of interest have similar meaning and thus that they are comparable across cultures (Karahanna, Evaristo, & Srite, 2002). Based on the encouraging results in previous samples and across three different languages, we expect that this scale will be metrically and conceptually equivalent for the Spanish language version with samples from three culturally different countries (hypothesis 2). Even though an ethic leader is a principle viewed similarly around the world, cultural nuances lead to differences in the endorsement of that principle across cultures (Hanges et al., 2000). The growth of Latin American economies and the Spanish language as the second most spoken one in the world is remarkable. However, previous cross-cultural leadership research has provided limited information about Latin American leadership (Littrell & Barba, 2013). Moreover, some “world-wide studies” assume Latin American and Latin European societies are comparable, not adding in its analysis one of the two groups of countries (i.e. Alas, 2006). Thus, more cross-cultural studies into not only potential similarities but also the specificity of each culture of measures developed in Anglo-Saxon context are needed (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). Concerning SL, prior studies show the existence of the SL construct in other countries and its importance (v.g. Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Regarding potential cultural differences, recent studies show that some

characteristics of SL may be differentially valued across cultures (Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, & Den Hartog, 2012; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012).

If we take a look to the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) study, the countries of this study and in previous SL studies can be categorized in clusters which share cultural values (Dickson et al., 2012; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Specifically, Spain and Italy belong to Latin European cluster, Argentina and Mexico are considered Latin American, the UK is considered Anglo and the Netherlands belongs to Germanic Europe cluster (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). These clusters have been studied in its relationship with six leadership dimensions: Charismatic/value-based, Participative, Team-oriented, Human-oriented, Autonomous and Self-protective (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012). Given the special focus of SL on workers in order to promote their autonomy, to empower them with a standing back attitude (van Dierendonck, 2011), this kind of leadership may endorse better in clusters which leadership expectancies are primordially participative and non-self-protective ones. In one hand, Latin American and Latin European clusters are quite similar in these GLOBE leader characteristics (Javidan et al., 2006). Leaders from these countries are expected to have medium levels of participative and self-protective characteristics, whereas in Anglo and Germanic clusters the levels of self-protective are low with high levels of participative attributes (Javidan et al., 2006). Accordingly, a previous study with an Italian sample showed lower SL scores than in the UK and The Netherlands (Bobbio et al., 2012). On the other hand, Hofstede's dimensions also show similarities and differences between the three countries in our study, and between these countries and the UK, the Netherlands and Italy (see Table 2.1) (Hofstede, 2009). Hofstede (2009) describes five dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long term

orientation. Specifically, power distance and uncertainty avoidance have been prior related to SL (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). As regards culture differences in Spanish speaking countries, power distance has observed to be negatively related to SL characteristics (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). For this reason, Spain and Mexico whose scores on power distance (see Table 2.1) are high (Hofstede, 2009) might endorse less SL. However in Argentina the score is in a middle rank position (Hofstede, 2009) so we expect more similar SLS scores between Spain and Mexico samples than with Argentina ones (hypothesis 3).

	Power distance	Individualism	Masculinity	Uncertainty avoidance	Long term orientation
Spain	57	51	42	86	19
Mexico	81	30	69	82	-
Argentina	49	46	56	86	-
Italy	50	76	70	75	34
UK	35	89	66	35	25
Netherlands	38	80	14	53	44

Table 2.1. *Hofstede's cultural dimensions for Spain, Mexico, Argentina, Italy, UK and the Netherlands*

As regards similarities, the three Spanish speaking countries present similar scores in uncertainty avoidance with a great concern for changing ambiguous and undefined situations (Hofstede, 2009). In this line, uncertainty avoidance has observed to be negatively related to egalitarianism and empowering SL attributes (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Based on GLOBE differences in participative and self-protective characteristics, and lower level of uncertainty avoidance in Argentina, Spain, and Mexico, it is expected that the global score of SLS in the three Spanish-speaking communities will also be lower than in the UK and the Netherlands (hypothesis 4).

Finally, convergent validity was also analysed. In previous studies carried out with other measures, SL has been observed to be positively related to positive attitudes of

followers as job satisfaction (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009; West, Bocarnea, & Maranon, 2009) and organizational commitment (Jaramillo et al., 2009; West et al., 2009). For this reason, we expect that a worker whose leader is closer to a servant leader behavior shows higher levels of organizational identification (hypothesis 5). Furthermore, in the relationship of SL with the perceived organizational context, job stress has been shown as negatively related to SL (Jaramillo et al., 2009) while role clarity was positively related to SL (West et al., 2009). Therefore, we also expect role stress (both role conflict and role ambiguity dimensions) to be negatively related to SL (hypothesis 6).

In summary, given the importance of the concept and the need to measure it in the international organizational context, this paper aims to validate the SLS in Spanish-speaking communities in order to implement the latest advances in organizational psychology in the organizations of these countries.

2.2. METHOD

2.2.1. Participants and procedure

A total of 638 people, employees between the ages of 18 and 65, participated voluntarily in the study. The participants came from three different Spanish-speaking countries: Spain ($N = 263$), Mexico ($N = 217$) and Argentina ($N = 158$). The sample in Spain was made up of 125 men and 138 women with an average age of 32.54 ($SD = 8.49$), 84 men and 133 women in Mexico with an average age of 36.17 ($SD = 9.27$), and 103 men and 55 women in Argentina with an average age of 34.23 ($SD = 7.42$). In all three countries, participants were contacted by email since they came from many different cities and work-settings. The inclusion criteria were frequent contact and

interaction with a supervisor. In the Spanish sample, most of the workers had a male supervisor (71%), as did the Mexican sample (66.8%). There is no data about supervisors' gender for the Argentinean sample. Participation was totally anonymous and voluntary.

2.2.2. Measurements

Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). Cross-cultural adaptation aim is to produce content equivalency between source and target measures (Beaton et al., 2000). In this sense, shared and differential aspects of culture between countries must be taken into account (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). As it is recommended for back-translation (Beaton et al., 2000), in a first step two bilingual co-workers translated all the SLS items developed by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Then, another bilingual expert translated the Spanish version back into English. Finally, the author of this latter version compared it to the original. There were not big differences between the English and Spanish version and they were resolved by discussion so that a final Spanish version was agreed upon. Also, language cultural specificity between Spain, Mexico and Argentina was taken into account. Following Schaffer and Riordan (2003) recommendations, we checked face validity of the Spanish adaptation across Latin cultures. Thus, four areas of equivalence for the Spanish version were discussed (semantic, idiomatic, experiential and conceptual; Beaton et al., 2000) and some semantic differences were encountered. For example, the translation of the English words “take risks” (item 8), “credits” (item 19) and “chasing recognition” (item 27) is different across countries (*asumir riesgos / tomar riesgos; elogios / créditos; buscar reconocimiento / perseguir reconocimiento*, respectively). The experts agreed upon the words which may be understood in all countries.

The survey consists of eight scales of thirty Likert items ranging from 1 (Never) to 6 (Always). All the items were formulated positively except for the dimension of Forgiveness (acceptance of others). Examples of items for the different dimensions are: “My supervisor finds it easier to rejoice in the good performance of a colleague than his/her own” (standing back); “My supervisor maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work” (forgiveness-reversed); “My supervisor takes risks even when he/she is not sure of support from his/her own supervisor” (courage); “Through my supervisor I have been able to develop further” (empowerment); “My supervisor holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we set about the work” (accountability); “My supervisor shows his/her limitations and weaknesses” (authenticity); “My supervisor learns from criticism” (humility); “My manager works from a long-term vision” (stewardship).

Role Stress. Role stress was assessed by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970)’s instrument which measures two dimensions, *role conflict* (6 items, i.e. “I work on unnecessary things”) and *role ambiguity* (8 items, i.e. “I know exactly what is expected of me”). The answers were collected in a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Totally false) to 7 (Totally true). Internal consistency values of role conflict and role ambiguity were both high in Spain ($\alpha = .85$, $\alpha = .87$) and Mexico ($\alpha = .84$, $\alpha = .89$).

Organizational identification. It was measured through the Mael and Ashforth’s questionnaire (1992). This test comprises 6 items (i.e. “When someone criticizes my company, it feels like a personal insult”) in 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Totally disagree) to 4 (Totally agree). The internal consistency was high both in Spain ($\alpha = .91$) and Mexico ($\alpha = .86$).

2.2.3. Statistical analyses

In order to test factorial validity, we followed the procedure described by the original authors of the SLS (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Thus, we used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the method of maximum likelihood estimations. The fit indices studied were both absolute and relative ones, as recommended by authors Hu and Bentler (1999). The indices used were Chi squared (χ^2), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA) and the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). A value of χ^2/df lower than 3.0, as well as IFI, CFI, TLI values equal to or above .90, and SRMR and RMSEA values lower than .08 indicate a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Likewise, when comparing between models, lower AIC values indicate a greater level of fit. As it has been done by the original authors (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) and latter adaptations (Bobbio et al., 2012), different models were tested according to the theoretical background. Thus, first a confirmatory factor analysis of the model was carried out with a single factor where all the items were loaded. Secondly, a confirmatory factor analysis of the eight factor model was analysed. Finally a third analysis was performed where a second order factor was added to the eight factor model.

Before proceeding to test for invariance, the model fit for separate samples for Spain, Mexico and Argentina and the pooled sample was tested (Byrne, 2010; Teo, Lee, Chai, & Wong, 2009). Afterwards, various tests of invariance were performed. In order to assess measurement invariance, multi-group confirmatory factor analyses (MGCFA) were run with AMOS 20.0. In this procedure, nested models were organized hierarchically by levels of restriction (Byrne, 2010) throughout six nested

models. Every nested model was tested using maximum likelihood and based on a covariance matrix (Byrne, 2010; Teo et al., 2009). All models were tested with respect to the configural model (M1). In the configural model, the pooled sample model was now simultaneously tested in the three separate samples with each parameter unconstrained (Byrne, 2010; Quiñones-García, Rodríguez-Carvajal, Clarke, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2013). Then, the rest of the invariance models were tested with respect to the configural model. First, we ensured that the factor loadings were equivalent (M2). Next, we tested that the structural composition of the loads was the same (M3). Following this, the same structure of variance and covariance was fixed between factors (M4). Next, the residual structure was fixed for the three groups (M5). Finally the same loadings for all the measurement errors were constrained across samples (M6). If $\Delta\chi^2$ was statistically significant, the null hypothesis that the models in all three countries were equivalent was rejected. However, since the differences in Chi-square are very sensitive to sample size, Cheung and Rensvold (2002) provided evidence that ΔCFI was not prone to these problems. On the basis of extensive simulations they also determined that a ΔCFI value higher than .01 was indicative of a significant drop in fit.

2.3. RESULTS

As shown in Table 2.2, the eight factor model with a second order factor was the best fit for all samples (hypothesis 1). The goodness of fit of this model was quite good in all three countries so it was established as the baseline model (Byrne, 2010). The diagrams of this model in Spain, Mexico and Argentina (see Figures 2.1, 2.2 & 2.3 respectively) showed that the strongest indicators of SL (with factor loadings equal or greater than .80) were for Spain: Empowerment, Standing back, Humility,

Table 2.2. *Confirmatory factor analysis: goodness of fit statistics*

		χ^2	Df	χ^2/df	p (χ^2 difference)	IFI	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	AIC
Spain	1 Factor	1327.116	390	3.403	---	.813	.812	.790	.078	.096	1477.116
	8 Factors	2051.589	412	4.980	.000	.672	.671	.652	.351	.123	2157.589
	8 F + 1F 2° order	734,964	381	1.929	.000	.930	.929	.919	.065	.060	902.964
Mexico	1 Factor	1269.925	389	3.265	---	.803	.801	.777	.083	.102	1421.925
	8 Factors	1815.721	410	4.429	.000	.684	.682	.663	.357	.126	1925.721
	8 F + 1F 2° order	724.136	380	1.906	.000	.923	.922	.911	.067	.065	894.136
Argentina	1 Factor	1212.606	401	3.024	---	.713	.709	.685	.102	.114	1340.606
	8 Factors	1115.892	422	2.644	.000	.753	.751	.744	.288	.102	1201.892
	8 F + 1F 2° order	590.211	392	1.506	.000	.930	.929	.921	.073	.057	736.211
Pooled sample	8 F + 1F 2° order	1213.738	381	3.186	---	.932	.932	.922	.053	.059	1381.738

Note.- Df: Degree of freedom; IFI: Incremental fit Index; TLI: Tucker Lewis Coefficient; SRMR: Standardized Root mean Square Residual; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

	M1: configural model	M2: measurement weights (mw) invariance	M3: structural weights (sw) + mw invariance	M4: structural covariances (sc) + mw, sw invariance	M5: structural residuals (sr) + mw, sw, sc invariance	M6: measurement residuals + mw, sw, sc, sr invariance
$\chi^2(\text{df}, p)$	2345.703 (1140)	2433.984 (1184)	2499.364 (1198)	2524.993 (1200)	2553.799 (1216)	3008.708 (1308)
χ^2/df	2.058	2.056	2.086	2.104	2.100	2.300
CFI	.901	.898	.893	.891	.890	.861
TLI	.887	.887	.884	.892	.891	.861
SRMR	.063	.065	.066	.068	.071	.073
RMSEA	.041	.041	.041	.042	.042	.045
ΔCFI	---	.003	.005	.002	.001	.029

Note.- Df: Degree of freedom; IFI: Incremental fit Index; TLI: Tucker Lewis Coefficient; SRMR: Standardized Root mean Square Residual; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

Table 3. *Fit indices of the different models of multi-group confirmatory analysis (Spain, Mexico and Argentina)*

Authenticity and Stewardship; for Mexico: Empowerment, Humility and Stewardship; and for Argentina: Humility, Authenticity and Stewardship. The lower factor loading dimensions were Forgiveness for Spain and Mexico, and Courage for Argentina.

In order to check the second hypothesis, the pooled sample model was tested. The fit indices showed good adjustment to the data (see table 2.2). Afterwards, MGCFA was carried out to compare the fit of the model in all three countries simultaneously. As shown in Table 2.3, we can observe that the decrease of CFI in absolute terms between models M1 and M2 ($\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.003$), and M2 and M3 ($\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.005$) was less than 0.01. Therefore the null hypothesis of equivalence between the two models was maintained. Thus, the factor loadings did not differ both in measurement and in structure models across countries. In the following model, M4, the variances and covariances of the eight factors were fixed. In this step, the CFI difference was not relevant either ($\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.002$), so the factors had the same relative significance between them and followed the same relational pattern. Finally, in models M5 and M6, the structural residual invariance and the residual measurement were also fixed. The decrease obtained between models M4 and M5 allowed the structural residual invariance to be maintained ($\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.001$). However, the difference between models M5 and M6 ($\Delta\text{CFI} = 0.029$) did not guarantee the structural residual measurement.

The reliability analysis showed adequate internal consistency. Just one dimension per country had a reliability below .70: Forgiveness for Spain and Mexico ($\alpha = .61$ and $\alpha = .69$, respectively), and Courage for Argentina (courage: $\alpha = .64$). Total reliability was .94 for Spain, .94 for Mexico, and for Argentina .93.

As regards hypothesis 3, it was observed that the Argentina SL scores ($M = 4.46$, $SD = .74$) were higher than Spain ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .97$) and Mexico ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.01$)

with $t = 8.10, p < .001$ and $t = 6.55, p < .001$, respectively. No differences were found between the SL levels for Spain and Mexico ($t = 1.19, ns$).

In order to check the hypothesis 4, we found no difference in SL scores between Spain and Italy ($M = 3.68, SD = 1.25$) (data from Bobbio et al., 2012) nor between Spain and the United Kingdom ($M = 3.73, SD = 1.04$) (data from van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) as indicated by the $t = .81, ns$ and $t = .11, ns$ analyses, respectively. However, in the Netherlands (data from van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) we found a greater SL score than Spain ($M = 4.10, SD = 1.04; t = 5.37, p < .001$). As regards Mexican data, SL score was lower than the Netherlands ($t = 3.33, p < .001$) and higher than Italy ($t = 2.08, p < .05$). No differences were found with the United Kingdom ($t = 1.25, ns$). Argentina got higher SL scores than Italy, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands ($t = 10.61, p < .001; t = 8.23, p < .001$ and $t = 5.44, p < .001$, respectively).

Finally, we also studied convergent validity of the construct (hypothesis 5 and 6). Self-rated role stress and organizational identification of employees in Spain and Mexico were analysed (no data available about Argentina). In the Spanish sample, SL showed a significant and negative correlation with role stress ($r = -.51, p < .001$), and both role conflict ($r = -.37, p < .001$) and role ambiguity dimensions ($r = -.47, p < .001$). Oppositely, SL had a significant positive correlation with organizational identification ($r = .42, p < .001$). In Mexico, SL was also significantly and positively related to organizational identification ($r = .24, p = .001$) and negatively to role stress ($r = -.57, p < .001$) and its two dimensions, role conflict ($r = -.54, p < .001$) and role ambiguity ($r = -.39, p < .001$).

Figure 2.1. Spain

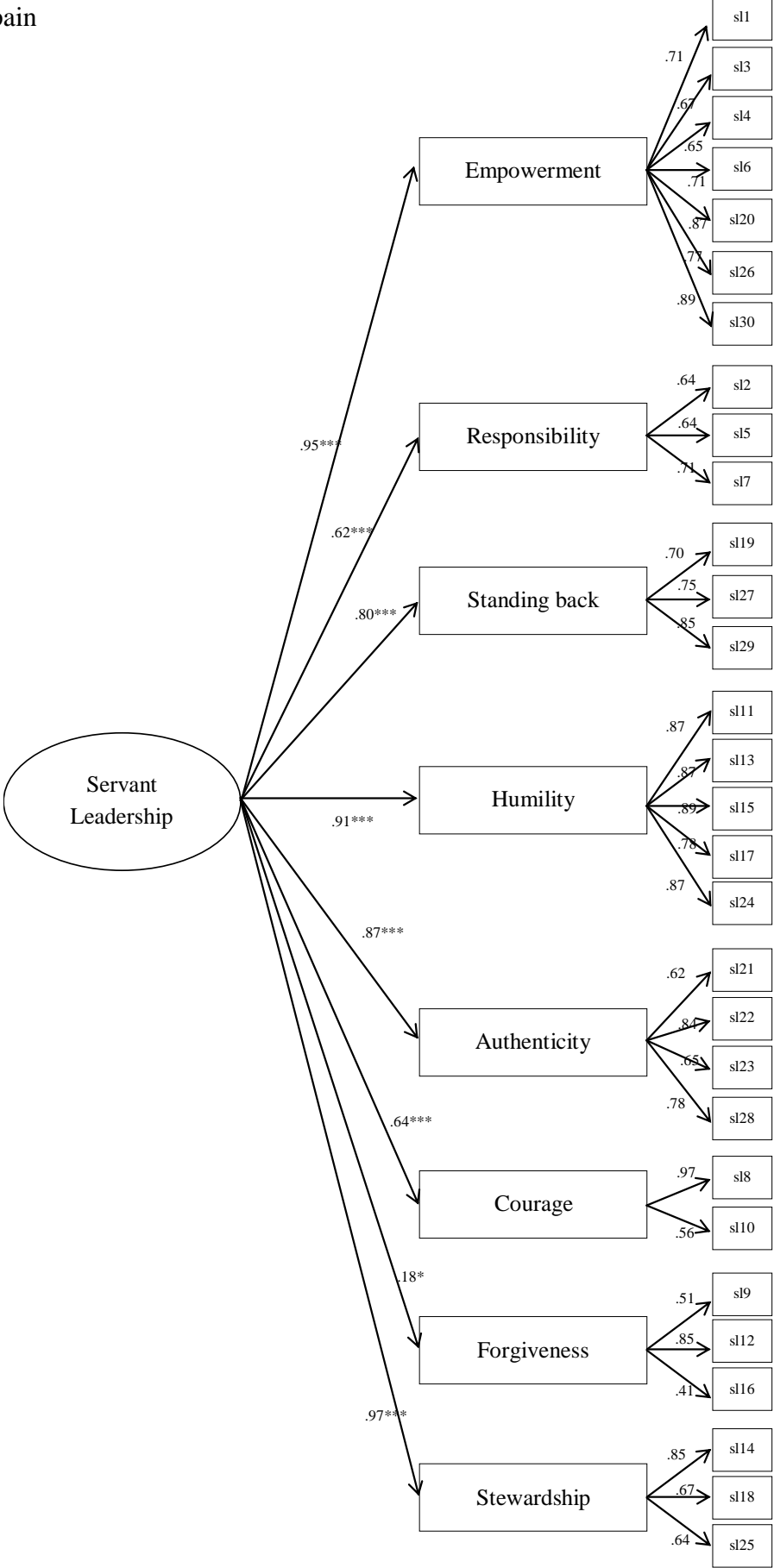


Figure 2.2. Mexico

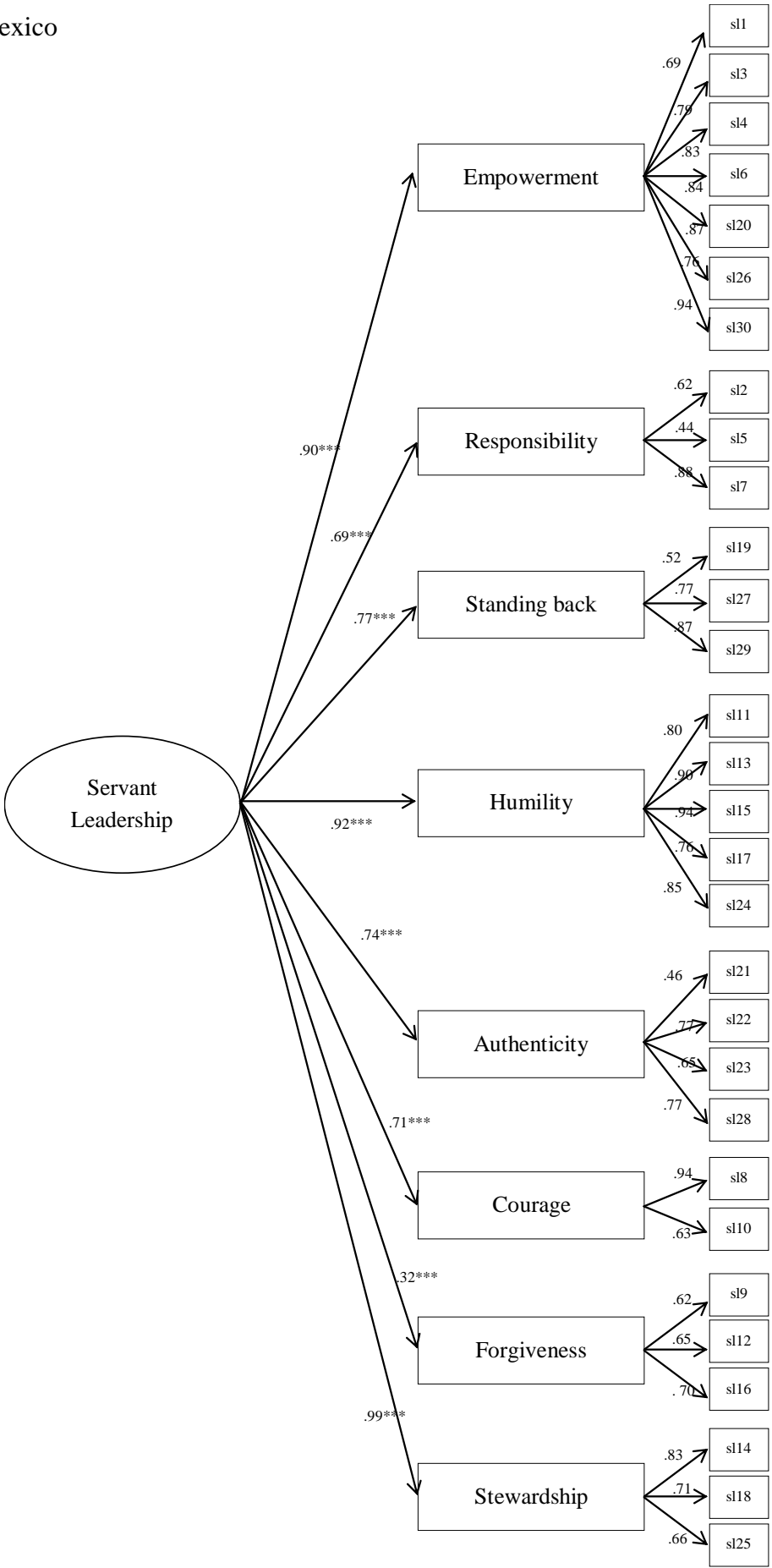
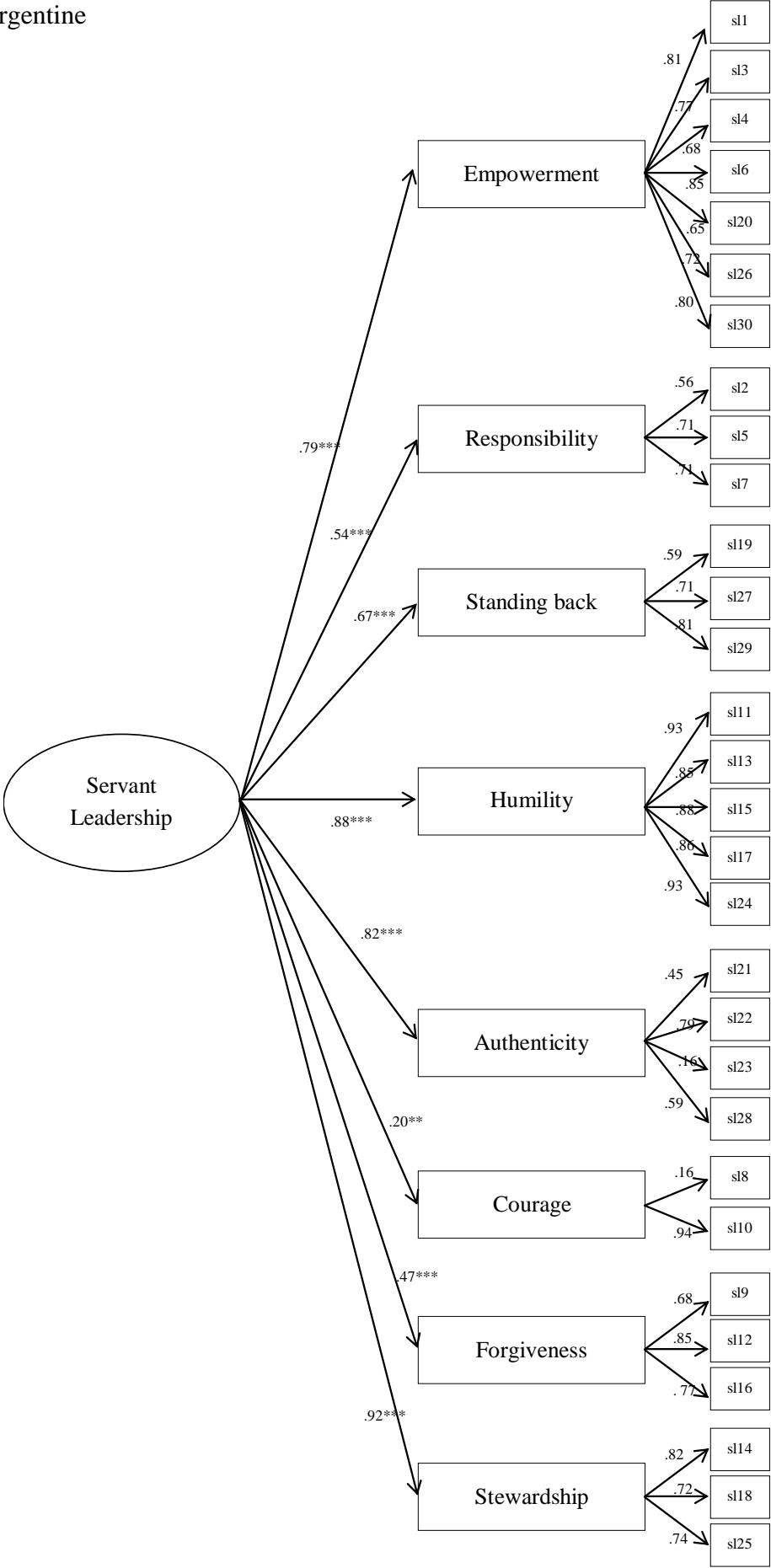


Figure 2.3. Argentina



2.4. DISCUSSION

The main objective of this paper was to study the validity and reliability of the Spanish version of the Servant Leadership Survey developed by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) in three Spanish-speaking countries. Independent CFA for each country sample and pooled sample corroborated the eight factor structure with one second order factor (hypothesis 1). Likewise, MGCFA also showed the model equivalence across the countries including structural residual invariance (hypothesis 2). Therefore these results support the multi-dimensional nature of the construct with a second order factor of SL. The factor loadings of the dimensions were also good, with the exception of Forgiveness, which was relatively low in Spain and Mexico. However, Courage was the dimension with the lowest factor loading in Argentina. Interestingly, Forgiveness was also the lowest factor loading in the recent Italian SLS validation (Bobbio et al., 2012) and in van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011) original study for the Dutch sample. Since five of seven countries showed this pattern with Forgiveness, we might consider this dimension for reviewing. In spite of this, the eight-dimensional model of the SLS was confirmed for the Spanish language context above instrument bias. Since measurement equivalence was demonstrated, future SL researchers can assume that significant differences in prevalence or in relationships between independent and dependent variables may be the result of true differences across cultures (van de Vijver & Leung, 1997).

As regards culture differences among Spanish speaking countries (hypothesis 3), Argentina showed remarkable high level on SL score. In this country we have to consider the relatively low scores in power distance and medium levels on masculinity (Hofstede, 2009). One could argue that perhaps it might be the combination of both cultural dimensions that benefit the expression of the servant leader. Low power

distance with medium levels of masculinity might reduce competition between colleagues and might promote egalitarianism which has been related to SL (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). In addition, these characteristics might enhance the more ethical and safe environment that SL promotes (van Dierendonck, 2011).

Concerning Latin culture similarities (hypothesis 4), as expected Mexico and Spain showed SL lower scores than the Netherlands. However, no significant differences were found with the UK. Recently, Mittal and Dorfman (2012) report no significant differences between the clusters considered in the present study. However, the Nordic and Germanic clusters stand out by the highest scores in one of the servant leader attributes, egalitarianism, across all the 59 studied societies (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). Furthermore, the Germanic cluster show the highest cluster score for participative dimension (Javidan et al., 2006) related to several SL attributes as empowerment, autonomy and accountability. Thus, a servant leader may be better endorsed in the Germanic cluster since it is expected that the leader became noticeable because of its capacities to be focus on people.

It is also important to highlight the expected cross-cultural convergent validity of SL in both Spain and Mexico (hypothesis 5 & 6). These results strengthen the nomological network of SL across countries. In this respect, the SLS in the Spanish-speaker populations may be an important tool to measure SL impact on organizational settings. Some limitations should also be taken into account, for example, the fact that the procedure for data collection in Spain and Mexico happened via the “snowball” technique and that in Argentina the participants all came from the same company. As such one should be careful with generalizing our results given that the samples cannot be considered representative of the population in the countries studied. Nevertheless, the results overall are promising and due to the variety of the jobs, ages, etc., we can

consider that it does have good external validity. Nevertheless, it might be useful for future research, to carry out larger SL cross-cultural studies as well as further SL longitudinal studies between and within same organizational cultures.

In conclusion, this paper provides the first Spanish Servant Leadership Survey. Thus, it enables the study of SL in Spanish-speaking countries which is of key importance given the relevance of the Latin market in the international economic scene. Besides, the cross-cultural analyses conducted provide a framework in which organizations could implement leadership programs across cultures, and they could also prepare leaders for expatriate assignments or multicultural teams. Since leadership expectancies are important to leadership efficiency (Dorfman et al., 2012), the differences encountered between countries highlight the need to take into account the culture specificity in their application. Specifically, egalitarianism and the promotion of leader abilities linked to social aspects (trust, employees' encouragement, etc.) may help to a better implementation of SL. In addition, the adaptation and validation of the scale has shown that SL occurs in Latin countries and may help them to promote desirable outcomes. We hope that with the availability of this measure, it will encourage more SL research and application within Spanish speaking countries.

CHAPTER 3:

SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND GOAL ATTAINMENT THROUGH MEANINGFUL LIFE AND VITALITY, A DIARY STUDY

Abstract – Chapter 3

Despite the emphasis of servant leadership theory on the attention provided to workers' needs and goals, there is a lack of empirical knowledge on the relationship between servant leadership and employees' goal attainment. We provide a theoretical model of the mechanism by which this strong focus of servant leadership on a worker's individual development positively influences the worker's goal attainment. Through a diary study with 126 workers over five consecutive working days, the results indicated a positive within-person indirect effect of servant leader behaviors on goal attainment a day later through two parallel paths: the meaning in life at night and vitality the next morning. These results provide the first empirical support for the assumption of servant leadership as a promoter of employees' goals, and highlights how servant leadership positively influences the integration of work as part of life and the energy resources of workers to achieve their daily goals.

Keywords: servant leadership; goal attainment; meaning in life; vitality; proactive personality

3.1 SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND GOAL ATTAINMENT THROUGH MEANINGFUL LIFE AND VITALITY, A DIARY STUDY

Servant leadership was formulated by (Greenleaf, 1997) as a perspective on leadership whereby a person aspires to a position of leadership from a natural tendency to serve. Servant Leadership aims at building a learning organization where each person in the group can be valuable in his or her own way. A servant leader provides purpose, makes work meaningful and builds on the strengths of followers (van Dierendonck, 2011). In a recent meta-analysis (Hoch et al., 2016) demonstrated that servant leadership contributes incremental variance beyond transformational leadership to a broad range of outcomes. Most notably, recent studies confirmed that the effectiveness of servant leaders comes from a strong and primary emphasis on employees' strengths, needs, and goals instead of a primary focus on organizational profits (Hunter et al., 2013).

Servant leadership theory clearly proposes leaders as promoters of an employee's empowerment and autonomy, allowing employees to set and achieve their own goals (Liden et al., 2008), and abundant evidence confirms the crucial role goals play in linking motivation to continued effort and success (Locke & Latham, 2004). Despite these benefits, we know little about whether and how servant leadership enhances goal attainment. Related empirical studies have provided some indirect evidence of this process in terms of relating servant leadership to empowerment (Asag-Gau & Dierendonck, 2011), creativity (Neubert et al., 2008) and performance (Hunter et al., 2013). However, there is a clear need linking goal attainment theory with servant leadership theory to provide a more in-depth understanding of the process through which servant leaders can be effective leaders.

The primary aim of this paper, therefore, is to provide enhanced theoretical and empirical insight into how servant leaders' explicit focus on their employees operates as one of the core mechanisms through which they promote goal attainment. We will also propose and show that meaningfulness plays a central intermediating role in this mechanism. In addition, we will also explore the extent that a follower's proactive personality will play an enhancing role in this process. Nearly all of the servant leadership literature up till now presumes that servant leadership works similarly for all followers. However, leaders may differentially impact followers based on their subordinates' characteristics (Liden & Graen, 1980). Finally, we will build on recent research highlighting the need for understanding these leadership processes through a diary methodology since diary studies allow for an explicit focus on the daily interaction between the leader and follower, and how the daily fluctuations of a leadership style impacts on the follower (e.g., Breevaart et al., 2014; Gevers & Demerouti, 2013).

Our theoretical model (see Figure 3.1) presupposes that servant leadership promotes employees achieving their daily goals by enhancing their sense of meaning in life and increasing their vitality day-to-day. The model takes a multilevel perspective by incorporating both the intra- and between-person perspectives. Furthermore, it describes a process that combines the influence of servant leadership behavior within daily interactions with a follower's proactive personality disposition on their meaning of life at the end of the day, which influences a stronger sense of vitality the next morning and goal attainment at the end of the working day.

3.1.1. Enhancing Meaning in Life through Servant Leadership

Since Frankl (1992) brought the construct of meaning in life, it has become a central point of interest for understanding human behavior (Robert A Emmons, 2003). Nevertheless, the exact nature of meaning in life is difficult to delimit. Following

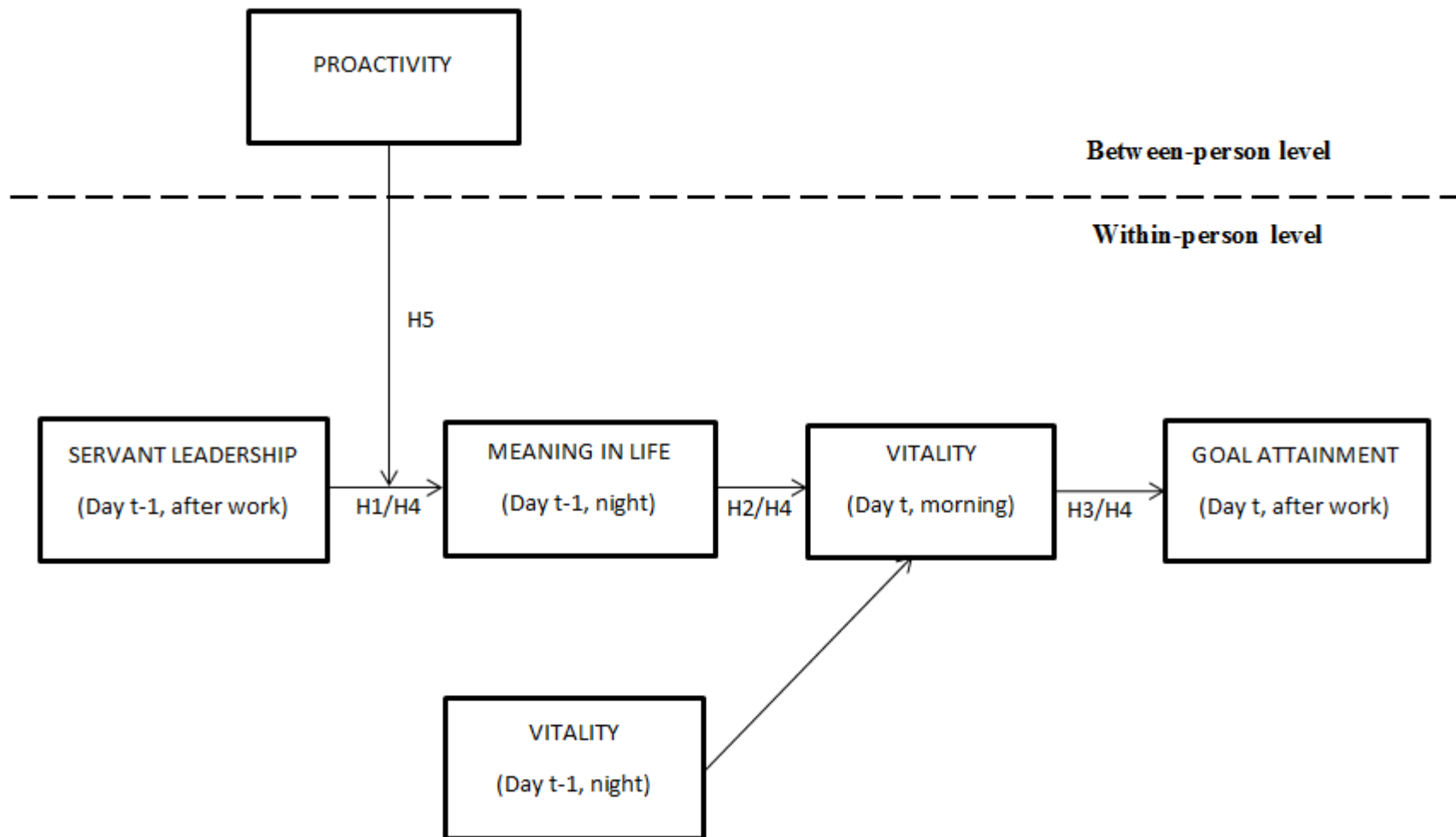


Figure 3.1. Theoretical model and hypotheses

Steger and colleagues (2006), we define meaning in life as people's global evaluation of the significance and transcendence of their life. It implies that people believe that their lives have a personal transcendent directedness whereby one's personal values and behaviors match (Diener et al., 1999). Thus, meaning in life is the subjective evaluation of the coherence between real events and inner motives (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002; Diener et al., 1999).

A frequently used scale to measure this construct is the presence of meaning in life scale developed by Steger et al. (2006). They explicitly differentiated this presence from the search for meaning in life (i.e., the struggles and intentions of people to enhance their levels of purpose, significance and connectedness) and from the sources of meaning. Research has shown that the global meaning in life is a stronger predictor of both life and work functioning than the presence of meaning in a concrete domain (Steger & Dik, 2009).

In spite of the importance of meaning in life for people in general, its explicit study in the organizational field is still scarce (Dent et al., 2005) even though the meta-analysis of Humphrey and colleagues (2007) showed meaning to be the crucial mediating mechanism between job characteristics and employee motivation and performance. Furthermore, the work environment has been labeled as critical for the understanding of meaning (Emmons, 2003), where leaders can play an essential role in shaping meaningful working conditions (Rosso et al., 2010).

Following Correia de Sousa and van Dierendonck (2010), we propose that it is servant leaders' special focus on workers that promotes a sense of meaning in workers' lives. Specifically, servant leadership may enhance an employee's meaning in life by facilitating the inclusion of work as a purposeful domain of life (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2010).

Servant leadership may help subordinates create meaning in their lives from their experiences at work, thus engendering sensegiving. As posited by Deci and Ryan (2000) and Baumeister (e.g., Baumeister & Vohs, 2002), people who individually recognize their value and competence have more opportunities to find meaning in their lives. In the work domain, servant leadership provides a safe work context – sharing power or allowing workers to commit mistakes (e.g., Liden et al., 2008) – in which employees are perceived as individually valuable. Servant leadership also promotes the autonomy of subordinates, allowing them to be agents of change (van Dierendonck, 2011), and to adhere their work with their inner motives. In summary, servant leadership encourages people to feel that they are valuable individual agents who can enhance their meaning in life through their work (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2010).

Moreover, servant leadership may provide clear directedness to help employees connect the meaning of specific experiences at work to a valuable purpose. In fact, Baumeister and Vohs (2002) posited that a clear directedness is one of the main clues to understand the creation of meaning in people's lives. In this regard, servant leaders foster moral values and support a work context in which the whole organization is guided towards ethical development (Liden et al., 2008). Servant leaders develop a conceptual framework that facilitates the construction of a long-term visionary perspective of the organization as a whole (Spears, 2010). Thus, servant leaders promote a purposeful directedness that facilitates meaning in employees' lives.

Finally, as a crucial contribution to our study, we propose that daily encounters with servant leaders' behaviors will impact subordinates' daily meaning in life because these behaviors directly influence employees' perception of the organizational reality at that very moment. As Baumeister and Vohs (2002) suggested, meaning in life can be constructed from the little things that happen in our daily lives. In fact, diary studies about

meaning in life have observed an important day-to-day variation that reveals a new understanding and field of research in this area (Steger, Kashdan, & Oishi, 2008). For example, daily variations of meaning in life predict daily emotional exhaustion, and well-being (Garrosa, Blanco-Donoso, Carmona-Cobo, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2017; Steger et al., 2006, 2008). In addition, recent research has pinpointed the need to direct the study of meaning in life towards its instability over time (Steger & Kashdan, 2013). In conclusion, as a crucial contribution to our study, we propose that servant leadership may influence on a daily basis how workers interpret their surrounding reality at work and integrate this work reality in their entire sense of meaning in their lives, thus facilitating the inclusion of work as a purposeful domain in life. Particularly we will explore if people experience more meaning in life at the end of the day due to servant leadership type interactions during the work day. This leads to the first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Daily servant leadership at work is positively related to the daily experienced meaning in life at night.

3.1.2. Meaning in Life and Vitality

In addition to meaning in life, vitality is also considered an important aspect of eudaimonic wellbeing or the degree to which a person is fully functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2001) (Rodríguez-Carvajal, Díaz Méndez, Moreno-Jiménez, Blanco Abarca, & van Dierendonck, 2010). Vitality refers to the conscious positive experience of individuals having energy available for themselves (Ryan & Frederick, 1997). It endorses both mental and physical variables and it is described by the comfortable possession of liveliness and dynamism (Nix, Ryan, Manly, & Deci, 1999).

People with higher vitality levels showed stronger positive relationships to wellbeing and health indicators (Nix et al., 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2008). Among employees, diary studies supported vitality as an important predictor in explaining a

worker's daily wellbeing (Zacher et al., 2014).

To understand vitality enhancing mechanisms, the broaden-and-build theory (BBT; Fredrickson, 2000), asserted that the enhancement of wellbeing resources would lead to the promotion of new wellbeing resources while helping to prevent the damaging effect of negative psychological states. Thus, meaning in life may enhance other aspects of wellbeing, such as vitality, while reducing the adverse effects of negative experiences. Empirical research on the enrichment of wellbeing and on the preventive role of positive psychological states supports the BBT presuppositions (e.g., Henderson et al., 2013).

In addition, we posit meaning in life as a wellbeing element that can specifically promote vitality. In this concern, Ryan and Deci (2008) formulated a possible explanation through which autonomous or volitional (vs. external) self-regulation explains vitality promotion and maintenance. Autonomous self-regulation implicates being in harmony with one's values or concerns. In this sense, people who engage in activities led by autonomous motivation are expected to exert less control to drive their behavior and, therefore, to invest less resources for self-regulation, which favorably impacts the levels of vitality (Muraven et al., 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2008).

Accordingly, those elements capable of facilitating autonomous self-regulation consequently may facilitate vitality (Ryan & Deci, 2008). As such, we propose that meaning in life is an element of individual wellbeing that can cause vitality by its autonomous nature. Since meaning in life connects real events and inner motives (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002) and the connection with inner values and concerns is key in autonomous self-regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2008), people who perceive their lives as being meaningful are autonomously motivated. Thus, the autonomous nature of meaning in life provides employees with a sense of being active agents in the purpose of the tasks

in which they engage and, therefore, they invest fewer resources in daily activities. Within the workplace, more autonomous self-regulated workers show higher levels of vitality (Graves & Luciano, 2013). Previous diary studies in the organizational field observed that variables highly linked to autonomous motivation help employees maintain their daily energy levels (v.g., Sonnentag, Mojza, Demerouti, & Bakker, 2012). Thus, it would be expected that people with higher levels of meaning in life consume less resources for self-regulated behaviors throughout the day and, therefore, maintain higher levels of vitality.

Relatedly, the daily variability in vitality (Zacher et al., 2014) and previous research on wellbeing highlight short day-to-day fluctuations as less studied aspects important to understanding employee behavior (Ouweneel, Le Blanc, Schaufeli, & van Wijhe, 2012). From this perspective our interest is focused on meaning in life as a mechanism that can promote positive vitality fluctuations day-to-day. We expect that meaning in life is related to vitality at night, however our main interest is to test if it would be related to vitality the next morning as then it would be generating an ongoing process of benefits at work next day. Based on those arguments, we propose:

Hypothesis 2: The daily meaning in life perceived at night is positively related to the daily vitality the following morning.

3.1.3. Vitality and Goal Attainment

Self-regulation processes involve executive efforts to control the behaviors that people act on to achieve their goals (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). Ego-depletion theory (e.g., Baumeister et al., 2007) states that the resources for conducting executive processes such as self-regulation are limited, so regulatory effectiveness depends on the availability of such resources. Vitality represents the energy upon which people rely to regulate their volitional behaviors (Ryan & Deci, 2008). Thus, promoting vitality may

sustain self-regulatory resources (Ryan & Deci, 2008), which help workers achieve the goals that they establish for the workday. Previous research supports the positive influence of vitality on complex self-regulatory processes towards task performance (Muraven et al., 2008).

In addition, from the BBT perspective (Fredrickson, 2000), an enhancement in vitality levels may increase workers' behavioral attempts to fulfill their goals. The results in the organizational field show the beneficial effect of global and work-related wellbeing indicators in job performance (Wright, Cropanzano, & Bonett, 2007). Thus, vitality as a wellbeing element may help workers widen their behavioral repertoires toward their goals. Hence, we posit:

Hypothesis 3: Daily vitality in the morning is positively related to goal attainment after work.

3.1.4. From Servant Leadership to Goal Attainment: The Role of Meaning in Life and Vitality

Summarizing the previous theorizing, we posited that the special focus of servant leadership on workers (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2008) will have a positive impact on meaning in life. Meaning in life is positioned as an important variable for self-regulated behaviors that facilitate goal attainment through vitality. In this process, leadership has previously been observed to be crucial for setting the conditions for vitality (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004). In fact, the positive effect of leaders on promoting autonomous motivated workers directly enhanced the vitality levels of employees (Graves & Luciano, 2013). Thus, the promotion of meaning in life by servant leadership may initiate a daily self-reinforcing process in which vitality levels are increased. Servant leadership may provide a context in which employees may intensify the perceptions of their whole life as coherent and autonomously self-driven, which in turn

would facilitate more vitality and less resource consumption in the self-regulation toward goals (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000).

Based on those descriptions, the relationship between servant leadership and goal attainment may be explained by the daily promotion of more effective self-regulation of subordinates through meaning in life and vitality resources. From this perspective, we propose:

Hypothesis 4: Daily servant leadership the previous day has an indirect, positive within-person relationship with goal attainment by enhancing meaning in life the previous night and vitality in the morning.

3.1.5. Follower Proactivity Moderating Servant Leadership Influence on Meaning in Life

Thus far, we have proposed that servant leadership will positively influence daily meaningfulness and vitality in workers and enhance next day vitality and goal attainment. It is, however, likely that servant leadership will differentially influence workers depending on their personality. More specifically, we assert that proactive subordinates will advance more from servant leadership behaviors in the daily meaning in life promotion.

A proactive personality is a relatively stable behavioral tendency to control contexts and to adapt them to one's own needs (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The proactive individual strives for worthwhile pursuits and initiates actions that build opportunities to growth (Kashdan & Steger, 2007). Life events are "experienced as an opportunity to render life meaningful or to find purpose in life" (p. 9; Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002). In this sense, previous studies have highlighted the active role of people in creating meaning from specific events (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). In fact, empirical research findings support that people who have the tendency to seek out and face new

challenging situations facilitates the pursuit of meaningful purposes (Greguras & Diefendorff, 2010) and increase their meaning in life in a daily basis (Kashdan & Steger, 2007).

In particular, we suggest proactive people may benefit even more from servant leadership behaviors to daily pursuit meaning in their lives. Servant leaders encourage followers to take responsibility and promote the attainment of their personal goals (Greenleaf, 1977) and to actively find meaningfulness in their lives (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2010). Moreover servant leaders promote these behaviors in a context based on trust (Hunter et al., 2013) and justice (Mayer et al., 2008) where proactive people is specifically encouraged (Crant, 2000; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010). Based on this, we expect proactive subordinates to be more likely to take advantage of those days in which their direct supervisor behaves more as a servant leader enabling them to more easily exert influence on their own environment to actively find meaningfulness in their lives. Hence, we expect:

Hypothesis 5: Proactivity moderates the within-person relationship between servant leadership after work and meaning in life at night, such that a positive relationship is stronger for people with higher levels of proactivity than for people with lower levels of proactivity.

3.2. METHOD

3.2.1. Sample

For this study, employees working at different organizations located in Spain were approached. As an inclusion criterion, workers had to be employed and have daily contact with their direct supervisor. Participants belonged to a wide variety of organizations such as hospitals, financial service companies, public administration, engineering companies or

high schools.

Contact with participants was established via the authors and the personal and work related contacts of a group of seven team members. Workers in relevant organizational positions (e.g., human resources personnel or top managers) were approached in order to reach a wide range of participants. These contacts were not participants but gave us the opportunity of introducing our study to potential participants inside their organizations. Of the 248 people who were initially contacted, 195 were willing to participate. Given the importance of compliant sample motivation, all persons willing to participate were personally contacted by one of the researchers. In the end, from the 195 distributed surveys, 126 completed surveys were returned. Four of the original participants failed to complete either the general survey and/or all of the daily survey, so they were excluded from the analysis. Overall, our final sample was comprised of 122 workers, yielding a response rate of 63%.

The average age of the final sample was 38.7 years ($SD = 11.0$), and their average tenure was 6.7 years ($SD = 7.6$). The majority of the participants were female (65.9%) and higher education was predominant (65.5%). The most frequent job sectors were health (25.6%), administration (17.4%), education (8.3%), information technology (7.4%), and finance/economics (6.6%).

3.2.2. Procedure

Measurement tools included a general questionnaire -measuring proactivity and socio- demographics-, and a diary questionnaire -measuring vitality, servant leadership, goal attainment, and meaning in life- implemented in a booklet. The assessment tools also included an informed consent and a letter in which the aim of the study and confidential personal data treatment were explained. An envelope was provided to return data directly to the university, thus assuring confidentiality. Participants were instructed to first

complete the general questionnaire, and respond to the diary surveys three times a day over five consecutive workdays (Monday–Friday), starting with Sunday night. Employees were requested to complete the diary surveys in the morning before work, immediately after work and at night. The instructions asked participants to choose as their leader, their direct supervisor and to report on the same leader during the assessment week. Participation was anonymous and voluntary and no incentives were offered to participants.

3.2.3. Instruments

3.2.3.1. General questionnaire measures. Participants were requested to complete a general questionnaire, which included questions about demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, educational level and working sector) and proactivity.

Proactivity. Proactive personality was measured using the Spanish adaptation of the 10-item shortened form of Bateman and Crant's (1993) questionnaire. This scale measures one factor that assesses the relatively stable personal disposition to respond to changes in the environment. The items were rated on a 5-point scale (1 = *totally disagree*, 5 = *totally agree*). An item example is "Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change". The internal consistency of the scale was good (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$).

3.2.3.2. Diary questionnaire measures. For all of the measures, we used abbreviated forms of previous validated scales by selecting those items with the highest factor loadings within the full (sub)scale that were most adaptable to transformation into a diary format. In addition, all measures were adapted to a daily basis by referring instructions and items to the present moment. This procedure is indicated to reduce the measurement length and adjust for measurements in daily studies (e.g., Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010).

Vitality. Vitality was twice rated daily (in the morning and at night) using two items from the Subjective Vitality Scale (Ryan & Frederick, 1997); Spanish validation by Raquel Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 2010). Two items were used (i.e., “In this moment, I feel alive and vital” and “I feel energized”) rated on a 6-point scale (1 = *totally disagree*, 6 = *totally agree*). The average internal consistency for the five days was .96 for morning vitality (ranging from .95 to .97) and .94 for night vitality (ranging from .93 to .96). The Intra Class Correlation (ICC) was .61 for morning vitality and .40 for night vitality.

Servant leadership. Servant leadership was assessed immediately after work by 16 items from the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS, van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Spanish version by Rodríguez-Carvajal, de Rivas, Herrero, Moreno-Jiménez, & van Dierendonck, 2014). Based on the item-total correlation with the full subscales, two items were selected from each of the eight dimensions of the scale measuring the servant leadership construct and adapted to the daily assessment: Empowerment (i.e., “Today my supervisor offered me abundant opportunities to learn new skills”); Courage (i.e., “Today my supervisor took risks and did what needs to be done in his/her view”); Stewardship (i.e., “Today my supervisor emphasized the societal responsibility of our work”); Accountability (i.e., “Today my supervisor held me responsible for the work I perform”); Humility (i.e., “Today my supervisor learnt from criticism”); Standing back (i.e., “Today my supervisor kept himself/herself in the background and gave credit to others”); Forgiveness (i.e., “Today my supervisor kept criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work”, reverse scored); and Authenticity (i.e., “Today my supervisor showed his/her true feelings to his/her staff”). Followers were asked to reflect the frequency at which that day at work they felt those statements to be true on their leader on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *never* to 6 = *always*. An overall index of servant leadership was generated for each of the five days. The ICC was .82 and the mean of

Cronbach's alphas across the five occasions was .88, ranging from .86 to .90.

Goal attainment. Goal attainment was assessed by the validated Emmons's procedure (1999), adapted by (van Dierendonck, Rodriguez-Carvajal, Moreno-Jimenez, & Dijkstra, 2009). First, in the morning before going to work, participants were asked to list four goals for that workday ("Think and write down the goals that you are trying to achieve at this work today") based on an ideographic goal assessment technique (Emmons, 1999). Secondly, immediately after work, goal attainment was measured by asking participants to answer two items about the achievement of each one of those morning's four goals ("Today at work, I have made considerable progress toward attaining this goal" and "Today at work, I accomplished what I set out to do with this goal") based on prior research (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Ratings were given on a 6-point Likert scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 6 (*totally*). Following the procedure of Judge, Bono, Erez and Locke (2005), participants evaluated independently for each item their attainment to each goal for that day. Two final item scores were obtained for each person and day by averaging each item values across the four goals. Afterwards, both item scores were averaged by person and day for a final daily goal attainment rating (e.g., Judge et al., 2005). The average Cronbach's alpha of both items across the five days was .87, ranging from .84 to .89. The observed ICC was .51.

Meaning in life. Meaning in life was assessed at night by the presence of the meaning in life dimension of the Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ; Steger et al., 2006). The original items were translated into Spanish and back-translated into English by two bilingual experts. This subscale is comprised of 5 items that measure the degree to which life is experienced as purpose driven on a scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 6 (*totally agree*). A sample item is "In this moment, my life has a clear sense of purpose". Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement with each item in

each present occasion. The Cronbach's alphas of the scale during the five days ranged from .82 to .85 ($M = .84$) and the ICC was .75.

3.2.3.3. Preliminary analyses. Preliminary analyses were carried out in order to test the adequacy of the implemented measures and to test the presence of common method variance (CMV) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

First, we followed the procedure proposed by Williams and McGonagle (2016) to test CMV. Specifically, we modeled the Unmeasured Latent Method Construct (ULMC) to test if there was significant systematic error variance due to an unmeasured latent method factor. By this procedure, we are able to capture multiple sources of shared method variance (Williams, & McGonagle, 2016). Following Williams & McGonagle (2016), the CMV procedure involves three different steps. First, the measurement model was tested by a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis which included all the study variables and their corresponding indicators. The results indicated the absence of significant CMV (Williams, & McGonagle, 2016). As a second strategy, we also checked the correlations between within-person variables as an indicator of CMV (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2014). As shown in Table 3.1, approximately only half of these correlations were significant. In addition, just one of the significant correlations was high (i.e. the correlation of meaning in life and previous-day meaning in life, $r = .74$, $p < .01$). This lack of strong correlations is also an indicator of the absence of common method bias (Tims et al., 2014).

Second, we carried on four sets of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to test the discriminant validity of the measures recruited in the same period of the day, the same day or the same variable measured in different moments of the same day. Following Gevers and Demerouti (2013), we applied a disaggregation procedure testing the models for each day to calculating the estimates' averages. The CPA analyses confirmed that

Table 3.1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Variables

Variable	M	Within- person SD	Between- person SD	Correlations									
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
General measures													
1. Tenure	6.65	7.57		--									
2. Proactivity	3.50	0.59		-.30**	(.77)								
Daily measures													
3. Morning vitality	3.72	0.98	1.19	.05	.33**	(.96)	.08	.07	.17**	.09*	.11*	.07	-.03
4. Servant leadership (t)	3.75	0.92	0.94	-.14**	.18**	.43**	(.88)	-.15**	-.06	.14**	.05	.06	-.04
5. Servant leadership (t-1)	3.77	0.87	0.92	-.12*	.17**	.43**	.84**	(.88)	.01	.03	.14**	.01	.11*
6. Goal attainment	3.75	0.89	1.14	.08	.19**	.37**	.26**	.28**	(.87)	.10*	.14**	.19**	.02
7. Meaning in life (t)	4.35	0.90	1.01	.06	.38**	.45**	.28**	.29**	.32**	(.84)	.74**	.13**	.07
8. Meaning in life (t-1)	4.48	0.91	0.98	.08	.39**	.47**	.27**	.31**	.32**	.96**	(.84)	.09*	.11**
9. Night vitality	2.83	0.88	1.22	-.01	.25**	.40**	.28**	.25**	.19**	.27**	.26**	(.94)	-.15**
10. Night vitality (t-1)	2.87	0.89	1.22	-.03	.27**	.38**	.23**	.29**	.13**	.26**	.29**	.44**	(.94)

Note. Correlations above the diagonals are within-person correlations (Diurnal measures: N= 610; Night measures: N= 732). Between-person

variables were calculated as the average within-person scores across days and are shown below the diagonal (N= 122). Alpha coefficients were calculated as the average alphas across days and are shown in parentheses.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

the independent variables measured at the same time represented different constructs and there are no time-linked common variance biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Third, we tested the fit of the factorial structure of the servant leadership scale for daily measurement. Based on previous procedures (e.g., Ohly & Fritz, 2009), a factor analysis of the item principal axis with an oblimin rotation was performed for each of the five measurement days. One factor solution accounted for an explained variance of 47.23%, 43.56%, 48.19%, 46.56% and 50.09% for each of the five days from Monday to Friday, respectively. These results indicate the adequacy of a unique overall index of servant leadership.

3.2.4. Statistical Strategies

A two-level hierarchical structure is observed in our data where daily data (Level 1) are nested within person data (Level 2). Given the hierarchical non-independence data structure and based on the structural equation modeling (ESM) frame to describe our analysis, we tested the hypotheses using multilevel path analysis (MPA) (Heck & Thomas, 2015) with Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2007-2012). MPA models the structural part of the ESM and handle the development of complex models with multiple dependent variables, predictors and mediators at different levels. These analyses combine much strength of multilevel linear (ML) procedures and ESM procedures. The multivariate perspective of MPA adjusts the statistical computation for the present correlations between the dependent variables. Besides, MPA partitions the daily data into within-person and between-person variances, which allows for the computation of estimates at both levels, simultaneously enhancing the power of a separate multilevel regressions for each dependent variable. Furthermore, MPA allows for the direct estimation of mediation and cross-level interaction processes reducing biases on standard errors estimation when compared to sequential ML models (Bauer, 2003).

A set of MPA models was computed to test the hypotheses: a) the null model, b) the main effects and mediation model (Model 1) and c) the cross-level interaction model (Model 2). Following centering recommendations, general measures were grand-mean centered and daily variables were group-mean centered to allow for the interpretation of estimates (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Culpepper, 2013; Ohly et al., 2010) and an appropriate test of mediation effects (Zhang, Zyphur, & Preacher, 2009). In all cases, previous-day variables were computed as t-1 variables to test the causal direction set in the hypotheses. First, the null model was tested to estimate the total systematic variance for the within- and between-levels in the outcome variable and goal attainment. Second, in Model 1, hypotheses 1–4 were tested. In doing so, the main effects and mediation effects are modeled, not including the cross-level interaction effect of proactivity. In the between-level of the model, the control variable (i.e., tenure) and proactivity's cross-direct effect were modeled as predictors of all of the dependent variables. In the within-level, the previous-day meaning in life was modeled as a function of the previous-day servant leadership in the within level. In addition, the morning vitality was modeled as a function of the previous-day meaning in life and previous-day night vitality in the within level. Finally, goal attainment was modeled as a function of morning vitality in the within level. These paths are in line with the hypothesized serial mediation model (Figure 3.1) because we expect a relationship between the mediators (i.e. meaning in life and vitality) in explaining goal attainment. Nevertheless, in multiple mediator models, (Hayes, 2013) describes a competing model in which the mediators do not behave as a chain in explaining the dependent variable but as parallel independent effects. In order to test these competing mechanisms (Hayes, 2013), the direct effects of morning vitality on the previous-day servant leadership and goal attainment on the previous-day meaning in life were included in the within level of the model (Figure 3.2).

Third, in Model 2, the cross-level interaction of the proactivity and previous-day servant leadership in predicting meaning in life is included in the model. To test Hypothesis 4, the formulas for multilevel mediation were computed in Mplus 7.0 to test the serial indirect effect. In doing so, the recommendations of Bauer, Preacher and Gil (2006) and Hayes (2013) for mediation were applied. Concretely, the serial mediation effect was tested as 1-1-1-1 mediation in which all predictors and outcomes are measured at Level 1 for the within-level or day-level (e.g., Bauer et al., 2006). For Level 1 mediations is highlighted the need of deconflate within and between levels effects to avoid unconfounded estimates of the mediation effect (Bauer et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2009). In these sense, the MPA based on the ESM computational possibilities of Mplus allow us to avoid these bias by simultaneously and independently modeling the within and between variance of the group-mean centered Level 1 variables (Bauer et al., 2006; Muthén & Asparouhov, 2011).

To test Hypothesis 5, three different steps were followed to analyze the cross-level interaction effect of proactivity on the previous-day servant leadership meaning in life relationship. In the first step, following the indications of Aguinis and colleagues (2013), the cross-level interaction was tested after controlling for the existence of a significant random slope variance on the previous-day servant leadership meaning in life relationship in Model 1. In the second step, the significance of proactivity as a predictor of the servant leadership meaning in life slope was tested in Model 2. In the third and final step, additional analysis was performed to test the simple slopes and regions of significance using the webpage code provided by Preacher, Curran and Bauer (2006) (Case 3, available at <http://www.quantpsy.org/interact/hlm2.htm>). To observe if the parameters included in each sequential model (Null model, Model 1 and Model 2) must be considered, deviance indicators were examined based on a likelihood ratio test.

Specifically, the likelihood ratio test was computed from the difference of the -2 log likelihood of the two models (Null model - Model 1; Model 1 - Model 2). This difference follows a Chi-square distribution with the degrees of freedom equal to the number of new parameters included in the second model with respect to the previous model (Twisk, 2010). The relative model fit indexes Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and sample-size adjusted Bayesian Information Criterion (aBIC) were calculated for every model. When comparing between models, lower AIC and aBIC values indicate a greater level of fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Additionally, the effect size is provided as the predictors explained the variance for each dependent variable. In doing so, the R^2 values are calculated for the total variance of each dependent variable following the formulas of (Snijders & Bosker, 1999).

3.3. RESULTS

3.3.1. Descriptive Analysis

The means, standard deviations and correlations between the studied variables are shown in Table 3.1.

3.3.2. Null Model

In the first step, the null model or the only intercept model was calculated for the dependent variables: previous day meaning in life, morning vitality and goal attainment. For the previous-day meaning in life, approximately 18% of the total variance was attributable to within-person variability (Level 1) and 82% was attributable to between-person variation (Level 2). For morning vitality, the Level 1 variance was approximately 39% and the Level 2 variance was 61%. For goal attainment, the Level 1 variance was approximately 49% and the Level 2 variance was 52%. In all three cases the existence of

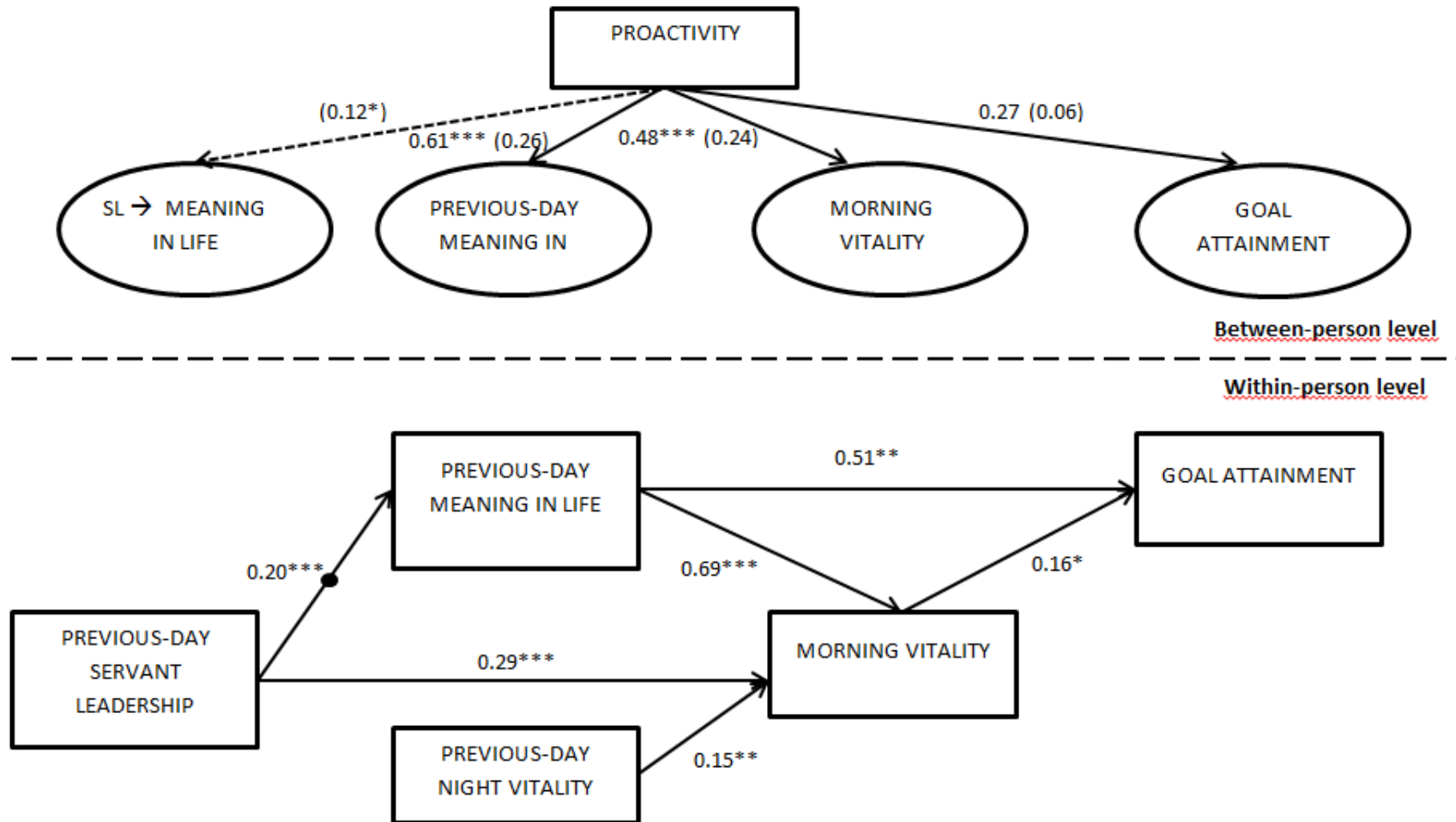


Figure 3.2. Multilevel path unstandardized coefficients of Model 1 and Model 2. The path included in the Model 2 is drawn as a discontinuous line. Changes in coefficients in Model 2 compared to Model 1 are shown in parenthesis. The dot indicates a random slope and this slope is modeled as a latent variable in the between-person level as “SL → Meaning in life”. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .01$.

important Level 2 variance indicated non-independent data and, therefore, the adequacy of taking into account the hierarchical structure by MPA to avoid estimation bias (Cohen, et al., 2003). The model fit indicators of the null model were $AIC = 4248.47$ and $aBIC = 4260.83$.

3.3.3. Model 1: Direct and Mediated Effects

As labeled in Figure 3.2, in the second step the full model estimates were tested excluding the moderation effect of proactivity (Model 1). Model 1 fit indicators were $AIC = 3424.35$ and $aBIC = 3443.02$. The inclusion of the predictors in Model 1 significantly improved the model fit ($\chi^2 [15] = 853.82, p < .001$) with respect to the Null Model.

Results for the within-level indicated a significant mean of the random slope for the previous-day servant leadership on the previous-day meaning in life ($\gamma_{10} = 0.20, p < .001$). This shows that those days in which employees experienced servant leadership behaviors from a direct supervisor, they were more likely to sense their life as being meaningful at the end of the day. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Following the indications of Aguinis et al. (2013), preceding to the cross-level interaction test, the significance of the random slope for the previous-day servant leadership on the previous-day meaning in life was observed. The full model test in Model 1 showed that the variance of this random slope was significant ($\tau_1 = 0.02, p = .002$), indicating the existence of a substantial variance at Level 2 was susceptible to being explained by a person-level variable.

Regarding Hypothesis 2, the fixed slope for the previous-day meaning in life on the morning vitality for the within-level variable was significant ($\beta_2 = 0.69, p < .001$) when controlling for previous-day night vitality and servant leadership. This suggests that the days in which people experienced higher levels of meaning in life at night, they

also tended to experience higher levels of vitality the next morning. These results support Hypothesis 2.

When observing goal attainment prediction by morning vitality, the significant fixed slope within level ($\beta_3 = 0.16$, $p = .014$) indicates that workers who had higher levels of vitality in the morning were more likely to attain their goals after work. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

In Model 1, approximately 23.87% of the total variance of the previous-day meaning in life was attributed to the predictors. The added explained variance by the indicators yields a total amount of 45.98% of morning vitality and accounted for 27.80% of the total variance of goal attainment.

To test Hypothesis 4, a serial full indirect effect from servant leadership to goal attainment through the previous day's meaning in life and morning vitality was tested. In doing so, analysis was computed using Mplus following the formulas of Bauer et al. (2006) and Hayes (2013) for mediation. The results supported a significant indirect total effect for the previous-day's servant leadership on goal attainment (0.18, $SE = 0.06$; $p = .003$; 95% CI [.06, .30]). Only the following paths were significant: previous-day servant leadership \rightarrow previous-day meaning in life \rightarrow goal attainment (0.10, $SE = 0.04$; $p = .010$; 95% CI [.03, .18]) and previous-day servant leadership \rightarrow morning vitality \rightarrow goal attainment (0.06, $SE = 0.03$; $p = .032$; 95% CI [.01, .11]). The serial path of previous-day servant leadership \rightarrow previous-day meaning in life \rightarrow morning vitality \rightarrow goal attainment was not significant (0.02, $SE = 0.01$; $p = .141$; 95% CI [-.01, .04]). Hence, this suggests that days in which people experienced higher levels of SL behaviors, they were also inclined to have higher levels of goal attainment the next day. This could be explained by those days in which workers perceived more levels of SL behaviors in their supervisors, they also tended to experience both higher levels of

meaning in life at night and higher levels of vitality the next morning.

3.3.4. Model 2: Cross-level Interaction Effects

In the third step, the inclusion of the cross-level interaction between the previous-day servant leadership behavior and proactivity was entered in Model 2 as shown in Figure 3.2. The fit indexes of this model were AIC = 3422.57, and aBIC = 3442.02. This model significantly improved the model fit ($\chi^2 [1] = 4.13, p = .042$) compared to Model 1. Our results suggest that proactivity was positively and significantly related to the random slope for the previous-day servant leadership on the previous-day meaning in life ($\gamma_{11} = 0.12, p = .023$). Thus, Hypothesis 5 was supported. For further information about the cross-level interaction effect, the computational tools of Preacher et al. (2006) were applied. Specifically, as proactivity increased, the previous-day prediction servant leadership on meaning in life became more strongly positive as shown in Figure 3. The simple slope was 0.55 at -1 SD ($p < .001$), 0.63 at the mean of proactivity ($p = .001$), and 0.70 at +1 SD ($p = .002$). Additionally, the proactivity's region of significance ranged from -11.83 to -0.70, with significant simple slopes falling outside this region. These results indicated that the previous-day prediction of meaning in life on servant leadership was significant at any proactivity level. The inclusion of the moderator (proactivity) accounts for a 4.76% of the slope variance.

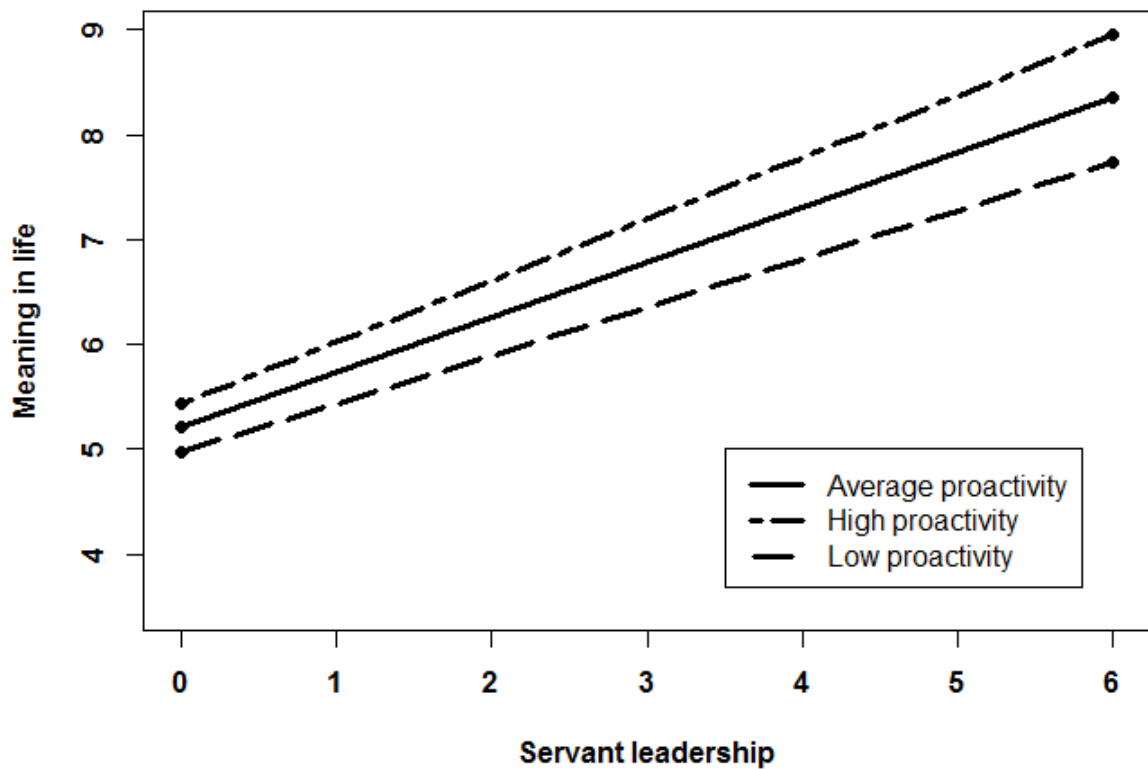


Figure 3. Cross-level interaction of proactivity on the servant leadership-meaning in life relationship

3.3.5. Additional analysis

In order to provide further information about the model causal direction, we additionally tested the reverse causal model. The reverse causal model fit was AIC = 8185.93 and aBIC = 8230.22. This model fit of the data was significantly worse than Model 1 (χ^2 [1] = 4755.49, $p < .001$), and also worse than the null model (χ^2 [14] = 3893.45, $p < .001$), giving further empirical support to the hypothesized causal chain.

3.4. DISCUSSION

As a core element, servant leadership theory posits strengthening the personal growth and development of its subordinates to encourage them to act as active agents of their own work. There is a clear need for studies into the daily mechanisms through which servant leadership behaviors may be effective. This study reflects, to the best of our knowledge, the first attempt at applying servant leadership theory to enhance our understanding of the daily relationship between the leader and follower and its influence on daily goal attainment.

3.4.1. Theoretical Implications

The present study contributes to servant leadership theory in four ways. First, this is the first study examining servant leadership as an antecedent of an employee's goal attainment using a within-person diary study design. In particular, the indirect path from servant leadership to goal attainment through meaning in life and vitality provides empirical support for the theoretical assumption that the servant leaders' interest in their subordinates' goals enables these followers to achieve their daily work goals (Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011). This positive relationship of servant leadership with behavioral outcomes builds on and extends previous empirical research such as organizational citizenship behavior (Neubert et al., 2008) or performance (Hunter et al., 2013).

Furthermore, according to our results, a second contribution is the daily spillover feedback loop effect of servant leaders' behaviors on positive followers outcomes from outside work, i.e., meaning in life and vitality, back to the work domain, i.e., increasing work goal attainment. Spillover refers to both the general process and outcome by which affective experiences in one life domain (e.g. work) influence experiences in

another domain (e.g. family) and overall life (Drobnic, Beham, & Präg, 2010). These spirals help us understand the effectiveness of daily enhanced servant leader behaviors as promoters of complex wellbeing resources, similar to that described in BBT perspective (Fredrickson, 2000). In this sense, previous research observed positive effects of servant supervisors on wellbeing indicators related solely to the work domain (e.g., engagement, job satisfaction, etc.) (Parris & Peachey, 2012). Beyond work, the present results on meaning in life and vitality highlight the importance of servant leader behaviors to promote the wellbeing of employees outside work. In addition, the final effect of meaning in life and vitality on goal attainment is in line with recent literature that highlights the importance of short-term fluctuations in wellbeing to explain the interactions between work and non-work domains (Ouweneel et al., 2012).

The third contribution is that our results show two parallel pathways through which servant leadership facilitates goal attainment. We observed that daily servant leadership can positively predict goal attainment both through meaning in life and through vitality. Both differential paths can be understood as two different self-regulated processes for a worker's goal accomplishment, proving the need for attention to both eudaimonic wellbeing components in organizational research (e.g., Allen & Kiburz, 2012; Steger & Dik, 2009). Both paths are described as follows: (A) By promoting vitality, those days in which the leader shows more servant leadership behaviors facilitates goal attainment the next day by setting adequate conditions for energy maintenance and enhancement day-to-day. Confirming propositions based on SDT (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and ego-depletion theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2007), the present results show that daily increasing servant leader's behavior may provide an adequate context for vitality that facilitates the morning energy workers need to successfully perform the self-regulated processes to achieve daily goals. And (B) as meaning in life

promoters, those days in which leaders show more servant behaviors help provide coherence between goals and values. This coherence between ultimate and concrete values and goals is an important aspect of personality integration (i.e., the extent to which aspects of one's personality cohere with one another) (Sheldon & Kasser, 1995). Thus, higher levels of meaning in life imply more coherence that is linked to better success in goal progress and attainment (Judge et al., 2005; Sheldon, Kasser, Smith, & Share, 2002). From this point of view, the indirect effect of daily servant leader behaviors on goal attainment through meaning suggests that to display more servant leadership behaviors may influence subordinates' self-regulated behaviors, allowing them to daily integrate work as part of their inner lives through meaning.

Fourth, this study posits, to the best of our knowledge, one of the first empirical examinations of the individual differences in the understanding of servant leadership's effects. Our results indicate a higher beneficial impact of displaying more servant leadership behaviors on daily meaning in life for those people with a higher proactive personality. Specifically, the process of enhancing meaning in life has previously been linked to the active creation of meaning from different contexts and activities (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). Therefore, employees with a proactive personality may enhance the benefits of those days in which their supervisors are perceived more as servant leaders who allow and promote them to initiate behaviors to make work cohere with the global meaning in life at the end of that working day. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the slope in the servant leadership and meaning in life relationship is positive at any level of proactivity. This indicates that employees at any level of proactivity take advantage of those days in which their leaders behave more as servant supervisors. Thus, daily servant leadership may boost employees toward the development of proactive behaviors no matter the individual differences in proactivity

(Searle, 2011).

3.4.2. Practical Implications

First, the present results highlight the potential beneficial role of enhancing servant leadership behaviors in organizations. Our findings suggest the desirability to support trainings directed to servant leaders' promotion. In this sense, the daily perceptions of supervisors exhibiting servant leadership behavior seem to be an important key for employees' wellbeing and goal attainment. Furthermore, given the daily process of the observed mechanisms, we would suggest supervisors be more aware of their own daily servant behaviors to provide an adequate context for employees' development.

Secondly, this study provides a methodological framework to study daily goal attainment in future research. Specifically, a further application of the ideographic goal assessment methodology proposed by Emmons (1999) is extended to the measurement of daily goal attainment. Furthermore, this goal-setting methodology can be implemented in practical trainings and interventions for human resource effectiveness in achieving daily goals.

3.4.3. Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations of our study must be considered. First, one concern may be the possible bias that the subjective self-evaluation could introduce in goal attainment assessment. In diary studies, previous literature has discussed this limitation to minimize its impact (Binnewies & Wörnlein, 2011). In this regard, the effects of self-serving bias could be mostly inherent to between-person differences. Accordingly, considering goal attainment for the within-level of the analysis would allow us to reduce the influence of this bias (Binnewies & Wörnlein, 2011). Besides, future research may consider the

inclusion of other sources to evaluate the goal attainment of coworkers, supervisors, or clients.

Second, a possible limitation is that we used the networks of the authors and a multiplier group to recruit the sample which is somewhat similar to snowball procedure. Although, snowball recruitment may lead to no representative samples, this technique has observed to be valuable in organizational research (e.g. Andresen & Margenfeld, 2015) and can help to broad the approached networks and lead to larger sample sizes (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). At this regard, employees from different organizations were represented in our sample helping to generalization of our results.

Third, the use of self-reported measures has previously been linked to the risk of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). At this matter, the diary methodology reduces the risk of bias by setting the predictor and outcome variables in separate occasions and days (Spector, 2006). Besides, diary studies recruit participants' answers in different places and periods and closer in time to the requested situation. Second, we reduced the possibility of shared variance by applying different response formats (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Concretely, the dependent variable (i.e. goal attainment) was assessed differently using Emmons's procedure (1999) which links goal attainment to the personal goals of the respondent. Additionally, we also carried out statistical procedures to check the presence of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003), through the ULMC test (Williams, & McGonagle, 2016) and other confirmatory factor analyses described in the method section. These analyses pointed to the presence of actual valuable variance of the proposed variables. Even, the lack of strong within-person correlations can be understood as an indicator of the absence of common method bias (Tims et al., 2014). All these analyses and method strategies suggest the present research results as a valuable contribution.

Fourth, we distributed the paper-and-pencil diaries for this study. These diaries may recruit fake entries or late responses compared to computational diaries. Nevertheless, (Green, Rafaeli, Bolger, Shrout, & Reis, 2006) tested data equivalence between paper-and-pencil and electronic diaries and they found very similar means, variances, and patterns of association. These authors highlight that the differences between electronic and paper-and-pencil diaries in compliance problems are probably more linked to the recruitment process and the participants' motivation than to the diaries type. At this respect, we carried on a careful motivational process previous to the study and we personally contacted participants, motivated them towards the aim of the study, assure complete confidentiality, and we strongly insisted about the lack of utility of entries provided at the wrong time.

3.5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study offers initial support to the daily mechanism through which servant leadership may be effective for an employee's attainment of work goals. Specifically, those days in which supervisors show more servant leadership behaviors both meaning in life and vitality increase, which initiates a spiral of wellbeing and enables effective self-regulated behaviors that lead to increased goal attainment the next day, showing a positive spiral and spillover effects from work to non-work domain and loop back to work.

CHAPTER 4:

SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CRISES: PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS AND MEANINGFUL WORK AS EXPLANATORY MECHANISMS

Abstract – Chapter 4

Servant leadership centers its leading efforts on promoting workers needs and goals from strong ethical consideration. It was argued that this leadership style is specifically effective for inhibiting workplace deviance in organizational crises. Results of three experiments about organizational crises gave support to the theorized effects. In experiment 1, results provided support to the incremental effectiveness of servant leadership style reducing workplace deviance compared to transformational leadership. In Study 2, these results were replicated. Moreover, we observed that to maintain the leadership style after an organizational crisis led to higher workplace deviance for transformational leadership than to servant leadership, which showed the lowest workplace deviance levels. In experiment 3, results extended servant leadership effectiveness by showing that servant leadership is effective for workplace deviance prevention in diverse contexts (i.e. ethical/unethical, crisis/no-crisis). In this third experiment we also tested the explanatory mechanisms of servant leadership effects. The satisfaction of employees' needs and meaningful work appeared as significant mediators of the effects of servant leadership on workplace deviance. It was concluded that servant leadership is a valuable effective leadership style for managing employees' workplace deviance in organizational crises.

Keywords: servant leadership; transformational leadership; crisis management; workplace deviance; psychological needs satisfaction; meaningful work

4.1. SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND WORKPLACE DEVIANCE DURING ORGANIZATIONAL CRISES: PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS AND MEANINGFUL WORK AS EXPLANATORY MECHANISMS

Several organizational crises supported on organizational responsibility outstand in nowadays' news. Whether it was Volkswagen manipulations of gases emission limits, Wells Fargo fake accounts in the names of real customers, the Panama Papers pointing towards lots of CEOs and politicians' financial corruption, or Mylan extremely high prices for life-needed medicines, all them mirror examples of organizational crises that reflect an actual and relevant social and organizational problem.

In our study, we refer to an organizational crisis as the perception of an unpredictable circumstance that threatens important expectancies of stakeholders and struggle the normal functioning of the whole enterprise setting on risk the sustainability or profitability of the organization (Coombs & Holladay, 2010). When the organization is high responsible of crisis presentation, the organizational behavior sets employees in a negative unwanted context of deeper negative impact (Coombs, 2007).

By this imposed damage, the new crises circumstances might provoke to workplace deviance against the organization as a response to the a) unethical perception of the organization, b) the enforced reduction of needs satisfaction, and c) the negative meaning construction about the relationship with the organization (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). Meanwhile understanding how to prevent this negative impact of organizational crises is necessary, little is known until now about how to successfully manage crisis processes (Coombs, 2007).

Leaders have been proposed as valuable elements to handle organizational crises effects (James, Wooten, & Dushek, 2011). Leaders are role models of the organization behavior and might help preventing from the negative perceptions inherent to crises

(Arthaud-Day, Certo, Dalton, & Dalton, 2006). Besides the proposed importance of leaders, different authors claim the need of further research in the field of crisis and leadership. In the present study we seek to cover the need of further understanding of the role of leadership in the impact of organizational crisis. Concretely, we propose the study of servant leadership style as a leadership style that might be specifically useful as a protective factor in organizational crises for workplace deviance appearance.

Servant leadership defines leaders that are mainly concerned in the wellness of their followers and other stakeholders providing an ethical guide for the development of the organization (Robert K. Greenleaf, 1977). The motivation of these leaders strives in caring of each person individually setting the adequate context for covering employees' individual needs (Mayer et al., 2008). What is more, these leaders nurture moral values and promote long term purposeful goals that might facilitate the construction of a meaningful work context (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2010).

By these characteristics, servant leadership is considered effective for crisis contexts (Gabriel, 2015) and might be especially useful handling the perceptions linked to workplace deviance provocation (i.e. unethical organizational behavior, reduced needs satisfaction, negative meaning construction about the organization as proposed by Lawrence and Robinson, 2007).

Even if previous research has proved the desirability of servant leadership to promote positive outcomes (e.g. commitment, or organizational citizenship behavior; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu, 2016), the efficacy of these leaders has been study mainly in no-crisis contexts. Oppositely, authors as van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, and Alkema (2014) highlight the need of continuing research servant leadership in specific situations and the explanatory mechanisms of this leadership in

these contexts. Aiming to study the effectiveness and explanatory mechanisms of servant leadership in crisis, we developed three experiments to comprehend the factors involved on workplace deviance provocation in organizational crises and the process by which servant leaders can be effective in its prevention.

This paper is structured by a general study introduction and the three experiments are individually presented afterwards. In our first experiment we analyzed the efficacy of servant leadership by comparing the effect of this leadership to transformational leadership in reducing workplace deviance in an organizational crisis. In our second experiment we aimed to replicate experiment 1 results and to test the most adequate adaptation strategies (i.e. maintain or change the leadership style) according to each leadership style. Finally, in our third experiment we studied different contexts in which servant leadership might reduce workplace deviance and the explanatory mechanisms of these effects.

This research answers the need of empirical evidence about the leadership styles which might be most efficient in managing crisis consequences (Boin, Hart, McConnell, & Preston, 2010). Moreover, the experimental methodology is adequate to give light about the factors involved in crisis processes since these studies allow for causal inferences (Aronson, Wilson, & Brewer, 1998). Meanwhile, the experimental designs eliminate alternative explanations while the validity of results is encouraged (Carnevale & De Dreu, 2005).

4.1.1. Organizational Crises and Workplace Deviance

The interest in the study of the management of crisis situations is due to their potential negative impact on the organization sustainability and the incremental frequency of these crises in the organizational scope (James et al., 2011). In 2016, the Institute of Crisis Management informed of more than 600,000 organizational crises registered

around the world (Institute for Crisis Management, 2017). Despite its importance, the term of organizational crisis still presents great difficulties to be delimited resulting in multiple definitions (Coombs & Holladay, 2010). In our study, we understand an organizational crisis as presented by (Coombs, 2007, 2010). Thus, organizational crises are defined as the perception of an unpredictable event that alters the evaluation that stakeholders (e.g. clients, employees, subcontractors) have of the organization (Coombs, 2007, 2010). These crises are atypical events in the organizational life and seriously threaten the functioning of the company (Coombs, 2007; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010).

The crisis definition presented Coombs (2007, 2010) emphasizes that in order to understand organizational crises processes we need to pay attention to their perceptual nature. In these processes, the meaning of the crisis event is a mental construction in which different factors affect how stakeholders finally perceived the circumstances and the enterprise (Coombs, 2010). Meanwhile, it is important to notice that crises are negative events, and, as such, are perceived as adverse behaviors in which the organization as a whole is functioning out of the expected normative standards (James et al., 2011). This means that organizational crises challenge the previous stakeholders perceptions of the company and threat the traditional organizational reputation (Claeys, Cauberghe, & Vyncke, 2010).

As stakeholders, employees are important organizational actors that are directly affected by organizational crises. During crises, employees face a negative context about the organization which breaks previous established perceptions (James et al., 2011). Thus, these crises break the standing previous reality due to the perceived disparities between the expected or desirable organizational behavior and the actual behavior when in crisis (Coombs, 2007). Specifically, these contexts of disparity and

incongruence provoke resistance actions which show up as workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), understood as a “voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (p. 557). Specifically, in our study we refer to organizational workplace deviance (hereinafter workplace deviance) where the outstanding conduct is performed by employees and directed against the organization and not against other stakeholders (e.g. coworkers) (aka. Interpersonal workplace deviance) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

The process by which workplace deviance might appear is expected to be worse in those crises in which the responsibility lies with the organization. At this respect, Coombs (2007) highlights that the severity of the crisis depends on the perceived organizational responsibility. Hence, employees’ reactions to a crisis may be more negative when the organization is blamed and linked to the cause of the crisis (Coombs, 2007). In this respect, since an organization which is responsible of a crisis imposes by its power a non-desirable state, workplace deviance is seen as a stronger resistance action in which the individuals behave in opposition to the organization (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007). As proposed by Lawrence and Robinson (2007), these circumstances can lead to the provocation of workplace deviance in employees because of a) the perception of the organizational behavior as unethical, b) the perceived reduction on the attendance of the personal needs (e.g. autonomy), and c) the difficulties on developing a positive meaning to frame the organization perceptions and identity.

Based on all above information, a critical element on managing the perceptions linked to organizational crises is to understand if there are factors involved in the crisis process that could reduce the employees’ negative meaning given to the event and

their possible deviant behavior (James et al., 2011). At this regard, leadership has been asserted as a clue factor in managing the negative impact of crises on employees (James et al., 2011; Zhang, Jia, & Gu, 2012). As role models of the organizational behavior, leaders have the responsibility of managing employees' perceptions of the organization (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006; Selart, Johansen, & Nesse, 2013). Thus, supervisors can provide a buffer against the reputational capital lost during a crisis setting the clues to understand and frame the crisis event (Coombs, 2007; James et al., 2011). Despite its importance, the interest of the study of leadership has been directed to no-crisis contexts and more research in this field is still needed (James et al., 2011). In our study, we focused on the leadership style as a critical factor in framing the crisis. Specifically, we posit that servant leadership can be a valuable leadership style which may help to handle the impact of organizational crises on employees' perceptions positively heading to lower workplace deviance intentions.

4.1.2. Servant Leadership and Workplace Deviance in Organizational Crisis

As defined by Greenleaf (1977), servant leadership denotes a leadership style in which stakeholders as employees or clients are the ground of their motivation to lead. This others-serving motivation is the root axis of servant leadership which strength the supervising role towards the promotion of the needs and goals of his/her followers (R. Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). In empowering their followers, servant leaders focus on the individual needs of their employees (Mayer et al., 2008) and establish relationships based on humility, authenticity, and forgiveness of mistakes (van Dierendonck, 2011). Based on these behaviors, servant leaders are able to inspire climates of trust and safety (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011). Moreover, servant leaders are ethical-driven leaders whose responsibility is inseparably linked to taking

decisions, setting goals and fostering moral values connected to the social context of the organization (Laub, 1999).

The servant leadership interest on the individual needs and goals of his/her followers and its ethical focus have been proposed as key in leading followers during crisis (Gabriel, 2015; Gerstein et al., 2016). Thus, this leadership style could be especially beneficial in setting a positive frame of the crisis that might reduce the potential of workplace deviance appearance. In fact, these servant leadership characteristics directly address Lawrence and Robinson's explanation (2007) for workplace deviance appearance (i.e. the perception of an unethical organizational behavior, the lack of attendance of people needs, and a negative framing to perceive oneself based on the organization).

Even if we are not aware of evidence in the field of crises, promising empirical results in a high uncertainty and change context indicate that servant leaders are effective in promoting positive perceptions of the organization and in creating optimistic attitudes about change (Kool & van Dierendonck, 2012). As well, servant leadership was observed to be able to empower followers and enhance their engagement in uncertainty circumstances during a merge (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014). Even if these arguments pinpoint at servant leadership as a promising leadership style in crisis, it would be still the need of comparative studies in these contexts to determine which can be the best leadership style to handle crisis (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2014).

In order to comparatively study the effects of servant leadership, we focused on transformational leadership since this leadership style has been proposed from its roots as a leadership style particularly suitable to guide followers in times of crisis, uncertainty or change where adaptation is necessary (B. J. Avolio, 1999).

Transformational leaders promote inspirational motivation in their followers through idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass, 1995). These behaviors lead followers beyond their own goals towards the organizational vision motivating the maximum potential from their employees to accomplish the organizational goals (Pieterse, van Knippenberg, Schippers, & Stam, 2010). In crisis contexts, transformational leaders seem to be perceived as effective leaders (Zhe Zhang et al., 2012) and promote resilience in their followers to face the challenging situation (Sommer, Howell, & Hadley, 2016).

Even the scarcity of empirical research in the field of crisis, these results pinpoint towards encouraging effects of both, transformational and servant leadership styles during crisis in spite of their conceptual differences. The main difference between transformational and servant leadership is their focus in leading followers (Stone et al., 2004). In this respect, while transformational leaders are especially focused on empowering their employees towards organizational goals, servant leadership understands the principal leader's motivation as serving followers towards their own needs and goals (Stone et al., 2004). As well, the ethical component of servant leadership has been highlighted as an added valuable aspect when compared to transformational leadership (Hoch et al., 2016). In this respect, servant leadership has been observed to promote followers performance through ethical processes (Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015) which can be beneficial to address the raised challenges by organizational crises. As previously described, organizational crises promote the perception of the organization as unethical and contribute to employees' negative perception about the coverage of their individual needs and the organization (Lawrence, & Robinson, 2007). In this context, the individual primary focus of servant leaders and their ethical processes compared to transformational leader might help

servant leaders to promote lower workplace deviance in crisis contexts. Nevertheless, few studies have been developed to compare the effectiveness of both types of leaders in no-crisis contexts (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). One of those exceptions is a recent meta-analysis carried on by Hoch and colleagues (2016). In this meta-analysis servant leadership has shown incremental validity over transformational leadership, ethical leadership and authentic leadership in explaining several outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, trust in the leader or organizational citizenship behavior). Concretely at regards workplace deviance, the incremental validity of servant leadership over transformational leadership remains unclear. Moreover, to our knowledge, no studies have been developed comparing the effects of both leadership styles in the field of crisis.

4.1.3. Overview of studies

In the first and second experiments of this study we direct our efforts to address the relevance of servant leadership in an organizational crisis. In order to accomplish this goal, we focus on the differential effects of servant leadership and transformational leadership on the workplace deviance levels in an organizational crisis context. After studying the relevance of servant leadership, in our third experiment we aim to understand the process by which servant leaders are efficient in crisis contexts in managing workplace deviance.

4.2. EXPERIMENT 1

In this first step of our study, we developed an experiment directed to answer the adequacy of servant leadership in preventing workplace deviance.

The study of organizational crises is not an easy target since their unpredictable nature results in limitations for the development of planned studies (Zhang et al., 2012). Probably this limitation has led to a reduced number of crisis studies and mainly retrospective procedures in those able to be developed (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2012). One of the most productive study lines in the field of crisis has been headed by Coombs and Holladay (e.g. Coombs & Holladay, 2001, 2006, 2007). These authors have propelled the study of crisis by experimental designs in which several factors are manipulated to give light to the crisis processes. These experimental procedures allow to controlled studies where causal relationship can be established adding valuable information to prevent crisis damages (Coombs, & Holladay, 2001).

Specifically, these experiments are based on scenario settings in which specific crisis descriptions are presented to participants who are asked to imagine themselves in these situations and to answer accordingly (e.g. Coombs, & Holladay, 2007). In line with the theoretical background, our study is focused on an organizational crisis with high organizational responsibility in which the organization is aware of the problem but it is prompted by an external source. We selected this crisis because when crisis responsibility lies in the organization, the crises are more severe and provoke more negative impact in employees' perceptions and consequent behaviors (Coombs, 2007, 2010). Moreover, the perceived organizational responsibility and crisis impact is more harmful because the problem is prompted to be solved by external sources but not by the organization (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006).

Coombs (2010) propounds that the influence of leaders on the before-crisis perceptions of the organization is a key factor to frame crisis reactions. In this respect, supervisors can help to prevent the damage of crisis by facilitating positive perceptions

about the organization before the crisis appearance (Coombs, 2007; James et al., 2011). While we agree with the exposed arguments, this fact leaves unclear the question if crisis can affect how leaders are perceived after-crisis. Specifically, since crises assert a negative impact on employees' perceptions (Coombs, 2007), leadership would not be an exception. From the exposed, we assert that:

Hypothesis 1: The leadership style perceptions are less positive in the after-crisis condition than the before-crisis condition.

Moreover, our second and main hypothesis focuses on clarifying the differential effect of servant leadership on workplace deviance. Based on the previously exposed theoretical background, we expect servant leaders to be more effective in reducing workplace deviance in a crisis than transformational leaders. Thus, we posit that:

Hypothesis 2: Servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than transformational leadership condition in an organizational crisis.

In addition, independently of the leadership style, presenting the leadership condition before or after the crisis might imply different possibilities of framing the crisis in order to reduce the workplace deviance. Based on the exposed, we expect before-crisis leadership effect to be stronger than their after-crisis effect in reducing the workplace deviance levels. Thus, we expect that:

Hypothesis 3: Leadership presentation before-crisis condition is related to lower workplace deviance than leadership presentation after-crisis condition.

As a resume, this first experiment is a scenario study focuses on the differential effects of servant and transformational leadership during an organizational crisis on workplace deviance. Moreover, we tested if workplace deviance was differently affected by the crisis being the leader's behaviors set before or after the crisis. In order to test our hypothesis, all participants were placed in a scenario reflecting an

organization which suffered an organizational crisis with leadership presentation order manipulation (i.e. before-crisis condition or after-crisis condition) and leadership style manipulation (i.e. transformational condition and servant leadership condition) were introduced. The dependent variable was workplace deviance.

4.2.1. Method

4.2.1.1. Participants and design. One hundred sixty four undergraduate students of psychology (26 male and 138 female; age $M = 19.95$, $SD = 3.65$) at the Autonomous University of Madrid participated for partial course credit. Participants were randomly assigned to the conditions of a 2 (leadership style: transformational vs. servant) \times 2 (leader presentation order: before-crisis vs. after-crisis) between-participants factorial design, with workplace deviance as dependent variable.

4.2.1.2. Procedure. Upon arrival at the laboratory, participants were welcomed to the experiment and seated in separate cubicles in front of a computer with keyboard. Instructions and measures were given on the computer screen.

Participants were presented with a scenario inspired by previous research (Dirk van Dierendonck et al., 2014). They were asked to imagine that they personally experienced the situation described in the scenario.

Participants were requested to imagine themselves as employees of the company You&B. The company was described as a company that produced and distributed cosmetic products for baby's health care as shampoos or creams. An organizational crisis was described to have occurred in the company. This organizational crisis situation was created for the experiment. Specifically, we defined a crisis in which the responsibility is on the organization and which is prompted by an external source since those crises generate the biggest damage (e.g. Arthaud-Day et al., 2006; Coombs, 2007). The concrete crisis description was created based on news about cosmetic

enterprises which used dangerous ingredients for health in their products. Specifically, the organizational crisis description was shown as exposed below:

The company “You&B” in which you are working has being just denounced for the use of cancerogenic chemical components.

Between the components used in the development of You&B baby products are the formaldehyde –a cancer-inducing chemical which dangerous effects in health have been aware by governments as USA and which also leads to skin, eyes or respiratory tract irritation – or dioxin 1,4 – a cancer-related chemical as tested in studies with animals.

It seems that diverse organizations in favor of consumers’ rights have been pressing You&B to end the use of those cancerogenic chemical components since 2009 after analyzing several creams, soaps and other baby products. Nevertheless, it is now when this problem has come to light by the official complaint of the Consumers and Users Organization.

Besides, the experimental manipulations were applied. For the leadership manipulation, participants were randomly assigned to imagine being an employee of the company You&B with either a servant supervisor (servant leadership condition) or a transformational supervisor (transformational leadership condition) (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). For the leader presentation order manipulation, the description of the leader’s behaviors was randomly balanced presented to participants either before (before-crisis condition) or after the organizational crisis (after-crisis condition).

Following van Dierendonck et al. (2014), in the servant leadership condition, participants read the following:

Your supervisor in You&B knows what you personally need. Your supervisor is modest, of integrity, honest, and authentic and shares his thoughts and feelings with you. Your supervisor in You&B is courageous, allows for mistakes, and provides freedom so you can develop your own abilities. Your supervisor shows great humanity and understanding of your position.

As the manipulation described in van Dierendonck et al. (2014), participants in the transformational condition read the following:

Your supervisor in You&B has the capacity to create a vision. Your supervisor communicates goals, values, purpose, and the importance of the organization's mission. Your supervisor in You&B examines new perspectives for solving problems and completing tasks. Your supervisor focuses on the development and mentoring of followers.

After imagining the above situation, all participants responded to a series of items about their workplace deviance intentions, as described below. Participants were then thanked and debriefed.

4.2.1.3. Measures. All answer were recruited in a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much).

Organizational reputation. We measured organizational reputation as experimental check of the organizational crisis description. This scale was assessed twice, just before and after the crisis description. Based on Coombs literature (e.g. Coombs & Holladay, 2002), organizational crises defining main effect on stakeholders is the negative impact on perceptions of the reputation of the organization. We measured organizational reputation by five items adapted from Coombs and Holladay (2002): “The organization You&B is concerned with the well-being of its publics”, “The organization You&B is basically DISHONEST”, “I do NOT trust the organization

You&B to tell the truth about the incident”, “Under most circumstances, I would be likely to believe what the organization You&B says”, and “The organization You&B is NOT concerned with the well-being of its publics”. The reliability of the scale (Cronbach’s alpha) was .79 in the pre-crisis measurement and .70 in the post-crisis measurement.

Leadership style self-reports. We measured by self-reports the leadership style just after the leader’s behaviors were presented in all conditions.

Servant leadership style self-reports (SL self-reports). The measure of servant leadership self-reports consisted of three items from Ehrhart's scale (2004) of servant leadership (van Dierendonck et al., 2014): “Your supervisor in You&B makes the personal development of employees a priority”, “Your supervisor in You&B makes you feel that you work with him instead of for him”, and “Your supervisor in You&B works hard to find new ways to help others be the best they can be”. The internal reliability of the scale was .82.

Transformational leadership style self-reports (TR self-reports). We assessed transformational leadership self-reports by three items proposed by van Dierendonck et al. (2014) from Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) and Rafferty and Griffin (2004) scales: “Your supervisor in You&B has a clear understanding of where the company is going”, “Your supervisor in You&B challenges you to think about old problems in a new way”, and “Your supervisor in You&B mentions things that make you feel proud to be a part of this company”. Cronbach's alpha was .62.

Workplace deviance. We measured workplace deviance through four items from Bennett and Robinson (2000) workplace deviance scale. Following van Gils, Van Quaquebeke, van Knippenberg, van Dijke, and De Cremer (2014), we selected these items based on their relevance in the crisis scenario and we asked participants to

predict their workplace deviance in response to working in the previously described crisis situation and leader. The selected items were: “Taking additional or longer breaks than is acceptable at your workplace”, “Neglect to follow your boss instructions”, “Intentionally work slower than you could work”, and “Put little effort into your work”. The reliability of the scale was .78.

4.2.2. Results

4.2.2.1. Organizational reputation. We first analyzed the crisis scenario attributes with all 164 participants' data. We compared the pre-crisis and post-crisis organizational reputation levels to observe the impact of the crisis description. Based on the *t*-test results, the organizational reputation was significantly reduced after the crisis ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.02$) compared to the levels prior to the crisis description ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 0.92$) ($t[163] = 31.33$, $p < .001$). From these data, we considered successful the experimental scenario as organizational crisis description.

4.2.2.2. Experimental checks of the leadership manipulation. The experimental checks were carried on by two *t*-tests on comparing the means on TR self-reports or SL self-reports between the leadership style conditions (i.e. Servant leadership or transformational leadership conditions). Concretely, only the measures of the conditions in which the supervisor was described before the crisis were used to test the experimental checks to assure that the observed effects were only those related to the leadership manipulation but not due to the crisis.

A first *t*-test comparison was done including TR self-reports as dependent variable. Results indicated that in the transformational leadership condition, people perceived higher levels of TR self-reports on their supervisor ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 0.52$) than in the servant leadership condition ($M = 5.56$, $SD = 0.76$), $t(80) = 2.88$, $p = .005$. A second *t*-test comparison was developed with SL self-reports as dependent variable.

Participants reported higher SL self-report scores, that is, they perceived their leader more as a servant supervisor in the servant leadership condition ($M = 6.38$, $SD = 0.51$) than those participants in transformational leadership condition ($M = 5.05$, $SD = 0.73$), $t(80) = 9.57$, $p < .001$. Based on these results, the leadership style manipulation can be considered successful.

4.2.2.3. Crisis effect on leadership style self-reports. In order to test the hypothesized negative effect of the organizational crisis on how the supervisors are perceived, we compared by two t -test the TR self-reports and SL self-reports means between before-crisis and after-crisis conditions.

T -test result for the TR self-reports indicated that the supervisor was perceived stronger as transformational in the conditions in which the leader was presented before-crisis ($M = 5.77$, $SD = 0.68$) than after-crisis ($M = 5.36$, $SD = 0.82$) ($t[162] = 3.49$, $p = .001$). Similarly, t -test result for the SL self-reports indicated that the supervisor was perceived more as a servant in the conditions in which the leader was presented before-crisis ($M = 5.72$, $SD = 0.92$) than after the crisis ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.10$) ($t[162] = 3.25$, $p = .001$). Therefore, the organizational crisis showed the expected reductive effect on the subjective perception of the leadership styles and Hypothesis 1 was supported.

4.2.2.4. Workplace deviance. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried on with the leadership style manipulation, the leader order manipulation, and their interaction as independent variables (see Table 4.1). The results revealed only a direct significant effect of the leadership manipulation, $F(1, 160) = 11.07$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .07$. Specifically, participants in the transformational leadership condition showed significantly higher levels of workplace deviance compared to participants in the servant leadership condition as shown in Table 4.1. Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Table 4.1. Means and Standard Deviations for Workplace deviance in Study 1 and Study 2

Leadership style	Study 1			Study 2		
	Overall	Leader-crisis order		Overall	Adaptation strategy of leadership style	
		Leader – Crisis	Crisis – Leader		Maintain strategy	Change strategy
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Servant leadership	2.99 (1.17)	3.06 (1.46)	2.93 (0.80)	3.44 (1.38)	3.17 (1.41)	3.72 (1.31)
Transformational leadership	3.65 (1.35)	3.90 (1.43)	3.40 (1.24)	3.81 (1.51)	4.07 (1.51)	3.56 (1.49)
Total	3.32 (1.31)	3.48 (1.50)	3.16 (1.07)	3.63 (1.46)	3.62 (1.52)	3.64 (1.40)

There was neither a main effect of the leader-crisis order manipulation ($F[1, 160] = 2.64, p = .106, \eta^2 = .02$), nor an effect of the interaction between manipulations ($F[1, 160] = 0.89, p = .347, \eta^2 = .01$) so we rejected the Hypothesis 3 based on the absence of a direct effect of the leader-crisis order manipulation. These results indicated that participants in the servant leadership conditions showed lower levels of workplace deviance independently if the leader's behaviors were presented before or after the crisis. See Table 4.1 for means across conditions.

4.2.3. Discussion

This first experiment aimed to give light to the comparative efficacy of servant leadership and transformational leadership in reducing workplace deviance during an organizational crisis.

As proposed in hypothesis 2, servant leadership was linked to lower workplace deviance levels than transformational leadership. Moreover, we observed these results despite if the supervisor was presented before or after crisis. Thus, servant leadership was more able to positive frame the crisis than transformational leadership before or after the organizational crisis in order to reduce workplace deviance. Besides these results, we observed a negative impact of the organizational crisis on both leadership style perceptions. Concretely, in the condition after-crisis servant and transformational leadership levels were perceived lower as hypothesized (Hypothesis 1). Nevertheless and oppositely to hypothesis 3, we observed no differential effect of after-crisis and before-crisis leader order presentation on workplace deviance levels.

The present experiment however does not take into account that supervisors could behave differently before and after crisis in an ecological context. As such, the same supervisor could present the same leadership style behavior or it could change after crisis. In all cases the organizational crisis is expected to reduce the positive

perceptions of leaders as observed in experiment 1. As such, a remaining question is if behaving as a servant leader is always beneficial in reducing workplace deviance compared to transformational leadership or if changing or maintaining the leadership style can be better for one style or another. In Experiment 2 we therefore aimed to replicate the findings, using the same crisis context, but manipulating the leadership style before and after crisis experimentally.

4.3. EXPERIMENT 2

In this second experiment, first we wanted to ratify the results obtained in Experiment 1 by testing the differential effects of servant and transformational leadership on workplace deviance in the same crisis context. In line with the theoretical background and the results of experiment 1, we posit that:

Hypothesis 1: Servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than transformational leadership condition in an organizational crisis.

Secondly, in this experiment, we added the maintenance or change of the leadership style after crisis as different adaptation strategies which may lead to dissimilar results.

At this last regard, previous research on crisis has pinpointed that the repeated used of specific leadership behaviors during crises may lead to unfavorable results (Davis & Gardner, 2012). Specifically, the repetitive use of charisma during crisis may lead to worse perceptions of the leader (Davis & Gardner, 2012; Hunt, Boal, & Dodge, 1999).

In this respect, a main difference between transformational and servant leaders is that while transformational leadership exerts its idealized influence based on charisma, servant leadership influences followers by its serving behaviors (van Dierendonck, 2011; Stone, et al. 2004). Based on the exposed, we expect that a maintain strategy

after crisis might conduct to an increment of workplace deviance for transformational leadership when compared to servant leadership. Thus, we posit that:

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership condition compared to servant leadership condition is stronger related to higher workplace deviance in the maintain leadership style adaptation strategy condition.

As a resume, this second scenario study focuses on the differential effects of transformational and servant leadership conditions on workplace deviance when the adaptation strategy of leadership style is to maintain or to change after an organizational crisis. In order to tests our hypotheses, the organizational crisis scenario described in the Study 1 was provided to participants, and leadership style condition (i.e. transformational and servant leadership conditions) and adaptation strategies of leadership style condition (i.e. maintain or change strategies) were manipulated. As in experiment 1, we assessed workplace deviance as dependent variable.

4.3.1. Method

4.3.1.1. Participants and design. Participants were 184 undergraduate students of psychology (28 male and 156 female; age $M = 19.59$, $SD = 1.94$) at the Autonomous University of Madrid participated for partial course credit. Participants were randomly assigned to the conditions of a 2 (leadership style: transformational vs. servant) \times 2 (adaptation strategies of leadership style: maintain leadership style strategy vs. change of leadership style strategy) between-participants factorial design, with workplace deviance as dependent variable.

4.3.2.2. Procedure. Participants were seated in separate cubicles in front of a computer with keyboard to complete the experiment. Instructions and measures were given on the computer screen.

Participants were asked to imagine that they were employees of the “You&B” company as described in Study 1. Afterwards, the manipulation of the leadership style was introduced. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two leadership conditions (i.e. servant leadership or transformational leadership conditions) (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). In doing so we used the same leadership descriptions as those previously described in Study 1. Next, the organizational crisis scenario described in Study 1 was presented. After the crisis, the adaptation strategies of leadership style were manipulated by randomly showing to participants either the same leadership style than before the crisis description (i.e. servant leadership or transformational leadership style if servant leadership or transformational leadership was presented first, respectively) (maintain strategy condition) or the other leadership style (i.e. transformational leadership if servant leadership was presented first or vice versa) (change leadership style strategy condition).

The combination of both experimental manipulations led to four conditions based on the leadership style manipulations carried on before and after crisis in each case. Those are 1) Servant leadership-Maintain strategy condition (Servant leadership before crisis & Servant leadership after crisis, SL-SL), 2) Servant leadership-Change strategy condition (Servant leadership before crisis & Transformational leadership after crisis, SL-TR), 3) Transformational leadership-Maintain strategy condition, (Transformational leadership before crisis & Transformational leadership after crisis, TR-TR), and 4) Transformational leadership-Change strategy condition (Transformational leadership before crisis & Servant leadership after crisis, TR-SL). Finally, participants were requested to answer the items about workplace deviance. Then, they were debriefed.

4.3.2.3. Measures. All answer were recruited in a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much).

Organizational reputation. We applied the same five items about organizational reputation described the in Study 1. This scale was assessed twice, just before and after the crisis description to assess the change in reputation due to the organizational crisis. The Cronbach's alphas of the scale were .79 in the pre-crisis measurement and .64 in the post-crisis measurement.

Leadership style self-reports. We measured the levels of each leadership style (i.e. servant and transformational) by measuring the leadership style self-reports just after the initial leadership condition was presented by the supervisor description and before the crisis description.

Servant leadership self-reports (SL self-reports). We used the same items as described in Study 1. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .77.

Transformational leadership self-reports (TR self-reports). We used the same items as described in Study 1. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .58.

Workplace deviance. We used the same items as described in Study 1. The Cronbach's alpha was .80.

4.3.3.Results

4.3.3.1. Organizational reputation. We analyzed in first place the effect of the crisis situation on the organizational reputation. In doing so, we carried on a *t*-test to compare both means. Results indicated that the pre-crisis organizational reputation ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 0.84$) was significantly higher than the post-crisis organizational reputation ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.01$) ($t [183] = 34.23$, $p < .001$). Thus, the organizational crisis description showed the intended effect and it was considered successful.

4.3.3.2. Experimental check. We developed two independent *t*-test with SL self-reports and TR self-reports as dependent variables and the leadership style conditions as factors (i.e. servant or transformational conditions). The first *t*-test indicated that the TR self-reports were higher in the transformational leadership condition ($M = 6.09$, $SD = 0.64$) than in the servant leadership condition ($M = 5.83$, $SD = 0.66$), $t(182) = 2.65$, $p = .009$. Besides, a second *t*-test indicated that the SL self-reports were higher for those participants in the servant leadership condition ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 0.56$) than in the transformational condition ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 0.87$), $t(182) = 8.27$, $p < .001$. Based on these results, the leadership style manipulation was considered successful.

4.3.3.3. Workplace deviance. In order to replicate study 1, we carried on a unifactorial ANOVA with the experimental groups that purely represent the same conditions than study one (i.e. servant [SL-SL] and transformational leadership style [TR-TR]). The results indicated that servant leadership ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.41$) was related to lower workplace deviance than transformational leadership ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.51$) ($F[1, 90] = 8.82$, $p = .004$, $\eta^2 = .09$). Thus, hypothesis 1 was supported.

In order to test hypothesis 2, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried on with the leadership style conditions (i.e. servant and transformational leadership), the adaptation strategies of leadership style conditions (maintain and change strategies), and their interaction as independent variables (see descriptive in Table 4.1). The results revealed that only the interaction between the leadership style and the adaptation strategies conditions was significant in predicting the workplace deviance levels ($F[1, 180] = 6.36$, $p = .013$, $\eta^2 = .03$). There was only a tendency of the direct effect of the leadership style ($F[1, 180] = 3.09$, $p = .080$, $\eta^2 = .02$), nor a direct effect of the adaptation strategies ($F[1, 180] = 0.01$, $p = .941$, $\eta^2 < .01$) on workplace deviance.

Further test of simple effects indicated that within the maintain strategy condition, participants in the transformational leadership condition showed higher levels of workplace deviance ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.51$) than participants in the servant leadership condition ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.41$) ($F[1, 180] = 9.16$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2 = .05$). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported. In the change strategy condition, no significant differences in the workplace deviance levels were encountered between people in the transformational or servant conditions ($F[1, 180] = 0.29$, $p = .591$, $\eta^2 < .01$).

In addition, a comparison of the maintain versus change strategies indicated a tendency of the maintain strategy ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.41$) to be better than the change strategy ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.31$) for low workplace deviance levels in the servant leadership condition ($F[1, 180] = 3.37$, $p = .068$, $\eta^2 = .02$). Oppositely, in the transformational condition, we observed a tendency in which the change strategy ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.49$) was most likely to facilitate lower workplace deviance levels than the maintain strategy ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.51$) ($F[1, 180] = 2.99$, $p = .085$, $\eta^2 = .02$).

In order to have a clear understanding of the effects, a parallel ANOVA was carried on in which leadership style and adaptation strategies of leadership style were combined as a factor with four levels (i.e. SL-SL, SL-TR, TR-TR, TR-SL). By means, the condition of TR-TR showed the highest levels of workplace deviance ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.51$), followed by the SL-TR ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.31$), and TR-SL ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.49$). The condition of SL-SL showed the lowest workplace deviance levels ($M = 3.17$, $SD = 1.41$). The ANOVA results indicated significant differences in workplace deviance between conditions ($F[3, 180] = 3.15$, $p = .026$, partial $\eta^2 = .05$). Post hoc comparisons using Bonferroni test indicated that the mean score on workplace deviance in the TR-TR condition was significantly higher than in the SL-SL condition ($|\Delta M| = 0.90$, $p = .003$). No other differences between conditions were significant.

4.3.4. Discussion

The findings of this second experiment replicated the results of experiment 1 given further support to servant leadership as the most effective leadership style on reducing workplace deviance when compared to transformational leadership in a crisis context (Hypothesis 1).

Furthermore, the results of this second experiment pinpoint that servant and transformational leaders are benefited of different strategies to face an organizational crisis (i.e. maintain or change the leadership style behaviors) (Hypothesis 2). At this regard, the results supported our second hypothesis indicating that the maintain strategy condition leads to higher workplace deviance levels for transformational leaders than to servant leadership leaders. In fact, a deeper comparison indicated that the worse adaptation strategy during crisis is to maintain the leadership style for transformational leaders compared to servant leadership in which to maintain the leadership style is linked significantly to the lowest workplace deviance levels.

In brief, these results support servant leadership as an effective leadership style in before and after crisis contexts to reduce workplace deviance. Considering this, we propose to continue specifically exploring servant leadership efficacy on reducing workplace deviance by addressing three issues in our third experiment. First, we aim to extend the validity of our results by studying the effects of servant leadership with an experienced working sample.

We have already tested the efficacy of servant leadership in an organizational crisis in which the organization has a big responsibility in the occurrence of the crisis. We specifically selected this crisis since these crises are expected to have the highest negative impact on employees linked to the high organizational responsibility on the crisis emergence (Coombs, 2007). To this end, in these two experiments we presented

a crisis a) that emerges when is prompted to be solved by an external source, and b) in which the organization is aware but does not proceed in order to solve the problem (in this specific situation: have not react to the health problem on their products). In this regard, we considered interesting, as a second issue, to test in the third experiment if the presence or absence of these two factors of the organizational crisis description may affect servant leadership efficacy.

Third, we aimed to progress in the understanding of servant leadership effects by setting the focus in this leadership style studying the mechanisms through which servant leadership reduces workplace deviance in crisis. Specifically, we delve into psychological needs and meaningful work as key mediators of these effects.

4.4. EXPERIMENT 3

Experiments 1 and 2 gave support to the efficacy of servant leaders in managing workplace deviance during crisis. As a third step, the aim of this last experiment was to further understand the crisis conditions in which servant leadership can be specifically useful, and to give light to the process by which servant leadership exerts its influence on workplace deviance during crisis with experienced workers.

4.4.1. Which Contextual Factors Can Prompt Workplace Deviance?

As previously noticed, in this third experiment we aimed to test if the presence or absence of two factors of the previous crisis description might explain servant leadership effects on workplace deviance when a company faces a problem. Those factors describes a crisis a) that arises when is prompted by an external source, and b) in which the organization knows the existence of a problem but does not solve it.

While those factors are described to increase the impact of the crisis based on the implications of the enterprise in the problem (Coombs, 2007), their presence or absence might explain the effects on workplace deviance. Below, we describe the possible implications of both factors and their expected effects.

The first factor of the crisis describes that the crisis emerge when is prompted by an external source. In this regard, the crisis starts because the unsolved health problem is disclosed to the public. In a condition in which no external complaint is done, the problem would remain hidden to the public and the crisis would not appear. In fact, since a determinant to differentiate an organizational crisis from an organizational problem is that a crisis sets on risk the profitability or sustainability of the enterprise (e.g. sales reduction) (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010), the context of a hidden health risk would remain as an organizational problem and would not become a crisis. Thus, we consider important to test the differential effects on workplace deviance in crisis and no-crisis contexts.

In this sense, the absence of the crisis factor might be linked to a lower negative impact on the organization and less negative behaviors from stakeholders due to the health problem (Arthaud-Day, et al., 2006; Coombs, 2010; Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010). Based on this, we expect employees to show lower organizational deviance in the absence of an organizational crisis.

Hypothesis 1.a: The crisis condition is related to higher organizational deviance than the no-crisis condition.

A remaining question is if servant leadership might differentially effect on workplace deviance in crisis or no crisis context. At this point, since servant leadership is proposed to be an effective leader in crisis (e.g. Gerstein et al., 2016) and no crisis contexts (e.g. Hoch et al., 2016), we argue that servant leaders might equally be

efficient in reducing workplace deviance in crisis and no-crisis circumstances. Accordingly, we posit that:

Hypothesis 1.b: The high servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than the low servant leadership condition in crisis and no-crisis conditions.

The second factor of the crisis describes that the organization is aware but have not react to the health problem on their products. While the responsibility in the maintenance of the problem make bigger the crisis impact (Coombs, 2007), the crisis also encloses an unethical organizational behavior. In this respect, the previous crisis definition posited an unethical organizational behavior in which the enterprise is aware of a health problem but does not try to solve it. Oppositely, the organization could behave ethically by solving the problem in the moment that is aware of it.

At this point it is important to remember that Lawrence, and Robinson (2007) posit that contexts that enhance the perception of the organization a) as unethical, b) as careless towards employees' needs, and c) promote a negative meaning frame linked to bad organizational perceptions might provoke workplace deviance. Based on the exposed, we considered as a next step to observe if the presence or absence of the unethical component may explain workplace deviance.

Attaining the first aspect proposed by Lawrence and Robinson (2007), we expect that the unethical organizational behavior to be an important factor for workplace deviance appearance. Hence, we hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2.a: The unethical organizational behavior condition is related to higher workplace deviance than the ethical organizational behavior condition.

Servant leadership is specifically an ethical leadership style (Hoch et al., 2016). The characteristics of these leaders promote extended ethical-driven processes between the stakeholders of the organization (Jaramillo et al., 2015). Thus, servant leaders are

proposed to be effective not only in general contexts (e.g. Hoch et al., 2016) but in unethical ones given their ethical behaviors, due to their role model on managing employees' perceptions of the organization (Arthaud-Day et al., 2006; Selart et al., 2013). Based on the exposed, we expect servant leaders to have similar impact on workplace deviance no matter the ethical or unethical organizational behavior context.

Hypothesis 2.b: The high servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than the low servant leadership condition in ethical and unethical conditions.

4.4.2. How Servant Leadership Could Reduce Workplace Deviance?

Besides the ethical perception of the organization, Lawrence, and Robinson (2007) proposed that people's perception of dissatisfaction of their needs and a bad perceptual construction of the meaning about the organization might lead towards workplace deviance; both of which are expected to be especially present in organizational crisis. Thus, below we expose how servant leadership might reduce workplace deviance by promoting restoring processes against these two losses prompted by crisis.

First, regarding peoples' needs, Deci and Ryan's proposal (2000) suggests, in line with the exposed arguments, that concretely the satisfaction of the basic needs of autonomy (i.e., feelings of exert the control and initiating the own actions), competence (i.e., feelings of confidence on own capabilities), and relatedness (i.e., feelings of connection and belongingness to others) may prevent towards negative attitudes and behaviors, as workplace deviance. Accordingly, servant leaders have been observed to specifically promote the satisfaction of followers needs (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Mayer et al., 2008; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Servant leaders promote the autonomy of followers by sharing power with employees and endowing them to

achieve their own goals (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008) and satisfy the competence need through empowering their employees and standing back to let them receive the rewards of their success (van Dierendonck, 2011). Moreover, these leaders behave authentically and individually care of each follower noticing their individual value and accepting their mistakes which can promote their feeling of relatedness (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). In this study, we aim to further address the effects of servant leadership effects on psychological needs by extending the empirical knowledge from no-crisis contexts to crisis contexts. In this vein, we propose that servant leaders might be a clue in preventing the provocation of workplace deviance during crisis by setting a positive context in which the satisfaction of employees' needs can be preserve. Specifically, we posit that:

Hypothesis 3.a: Higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction are related to lower workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 3.b: The high servant leadership condition is related to higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction than the low servant leadership condition.

Hypothesis 3.c: The effect on servant leadership on workplace deviance is partial mediated by psychological needs satisfaction. Specifically, the high servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than the low servant leadership condition, partially mediated by the higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction.

Second, besides peoples' needs, the negative perceptions about the organization create negative frames about the enterprise which might lead to increments of reactive workplace deviance (Lawrence, & Robinson, 2007). In fact, organizational crises break the perceptual framing about the enterprise which requires a new construction of the meaning about the organization (Coombs, 2007). Specifically, it is important to

understand which meaning making processes can lead to positive outcomes (Park, 2010). At this regard, meaningful work does protect from workplace deviance appearance (Jelinek & Ahearne, 2010). Meaningful work is the positive subjective experience of work as purposeful which contributes to a greater good and general life meaningfulness (Steger, Dik, & Duffy, 2012). As such, meaningful work provides a protective frame to face the crisis since implies a positive perception about the organization by understanding work as a valuable context for the employee.

In order to promote this valuable context, leaders can impact on meaningful work to reduce workplace deviance (Jelinek & Ahearne, 2010). Servant leadership might be precisely an appropriate leadership style to encourage meaning processes in employees (Correia de Sousa & van Dierendonck, 2010). Since servant leadership shows a clear directedness based on the presence of a long term purpose and moral values (Liden et al., 2008), these leadership behaviors nurture meaning processes in their followers. So, servant leaders' stewardship characteristic would enable a positive framing of the crisis understanding work as meaningful and preventing workplace deviance from appearance. In no-crisis contexts, servant leadership has been already observed to be effective in facilitating meaningfulness to direct daily behavior (R. Rodríguez-Carvajal, Herrero, van Dierendonck, de Rivas, & Moreno-Jiménez, 2016). In addition to the literature, our goal is to widen previous research by testing the relationship of servant leadership and meaningfulness in crisis contexts and give light to their influence in workplace deviance. Hence we posit that:

Hypothesis 4.a: Higher levels of meaningful work are related to lower workplace deviance.

Hypothesis 4.b: The high servant leadership condition is related to higher levels of meaningful work than the low servant leadership condition.

Hypothesis 4.c: The effect on servant leadership on workplace deviance is partial mediated by meaningful work. Specifically, the high servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than the low servant leadership condition, partially mediated by the higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction.

In addition, the proposed mechanism might be reinforced through a possible direct effect of caring psychological needs on promoting meaningfulness. At this regard, the satisfaction of the needs of (a) *autonomy*, (b) *competence* and (c) *relatedness*, - facilitated by a servant leader-, “induces a subjective feeling that one's work-related behaviors are congruent and meaningful to one's true self” (p. 127, Chiniara & Bentein, 2016). Since meaning is an individual mental construction, to be (a) *autonomous* allow to initiate the own construction of meaningfulness (Baumeister, 1991). In crisis, this might imply to be able to match the disparities between the previous meaning about work and the crisis-event meaning. As well, to feel (b) *capable* implies the possibility of framing experiences based on self-worth, while (c) *relatedness* implies connection to other people (Deci & Ryan, 2000). From this point of view, employees might perceive their work as a source of positive meaning about their value and contribution to purposeful goals and a greater good in relation to other stakeholders. In this vein, the satisfaction of these basic needs would make employees feel themselves worthy, valuable and capable for the construction of meaning, all crucial aspects for the promotion of meaningfulness (Baumeister & Vohs, 2002). Based on the exposed, the factors that care of people's needs might prevent from workplace deviance by the promotion of a meaningful work also in organizational crises. Since servant leadership has been previously proposed as a key leadership in promoting employees' needs, servant leadership might reduce workplace deviance in

crisis contexts by meaning making processes centered on promoting employees' needs for a meaningful work. Thus, we assert that:

Hypothesis 5.a: Psychological needs satisfaction is positively related to meaningful work.

Hypothesis 5.b: Psychological needs satisfaction partial mediates the relationship between servant leadership and meaningful work. Specifically, the high servant leadership condition is related to higher meaningful work than the low servant leadership condition, partially mediated by the higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5.c: Psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work partial serial mediated the relationship between servant leadership and workplace deviance. Specifically, the high servant leadership condition is related to lower workplace deviance than the low servant leadership condition, partially mediated by the higher levels of meaningful work promoted by the higher psychological needs satisfaction.

As a resume, this third scenario study focuses on the differential effects of high or low servant leadership on workplace deviance comparing scenarios in which the organization face problems by ethical or unethical organizational behaviors and which lead to an organizational crisis or not prompted by an external source. In order to tests our hypotheses, servant leadership (i.e. low and high servant leadership conditions), unethical organizational behavior (unethical and ethical organizational behavior) and organizational crisis (crisis and no-crisis conditions) were manipulated. As in experiment 1 and 2, we assessed workplace deviance as dependent variable. Furthermore, we examined psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work as mediators of the servant leadership hypothesized effects.

4.4.3. Method

4.4.3.1. Participants and design. The sample was composed of 160 Spanish-speaking people, all of them with working experience from which 59 were male and 101 were female (age $M = 35.33$, $SD = 10.03$). Most people's tenure ranged from more than one year to five years (40.1%), followed by more than five years to 10 years (17.0%), more than a month to one year (15.0%), more than 20 years to 30 years (8.8%), more than 10 years and 15 years (7.5%), more than 15 years to 20 years (4.8%), and equally less frequent were the extremes, thus, less than a month tenure range (3.4%) or more than 40 years (3.4%). Besides, participants working contracts were mostly permanent contracts (68.1%), followed by fixed term or temporal contracts (16.9%), some people declared being unemployed (8.1%), and the less prevalent contracts were the apprenticeship contracts (6.3%). From those with a current contract, contract working periods were mostly full-time contracts (78.9%), compared to partial-time contracts (10.2%) or hours or project-linked contracts (10.9%).

Participants were randomly assigned to the conditions of a 2 (servant leadership: high vs. low) \times 2 (organization unethical behavior: unethical behavior vs. ethical behavior) \times 2 (organizational crisis: crisis vs. no-crisis) between-participants factorial design, with workplace deviance as dependent variable.

4.4.3.2. Procedure. The study was programmed online using the Qualtrics platform which allowed the online and secure blind recruitment of a random sample. Participants were contacted via personal contacts and institutional mails and a link to the experiment was provided. The online study displayed an informed consent, followed by general instructions and then the experiment. General instructions indicated potential participants the need of searching for an adequate silent and absent

of disturbances context for a period of 10 minutes to complete the tasks. Participation was anonymous and no reward was offered to participants.

In the experimental section, participants were asked to imagine that they were employees of the “You&B” company as described in Study 1 and 2. Afterwards, the manipulation of servant leadership was introduced. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two servant leadership conditions (i.e. high servant leadership [High SL] or low servant leadership [low SL] conditions). The supervisor’s behavior description for the high SL condition was the same leadership description as that included in Study 1 and Study 2 for the servant leadership condition (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). For the low SL condition, we created a new description based on the high SL description by changing the positive statements into negative ones. Specifically, the low SL description was shown to participants as follows:

Your supervisor in You&B does not know what you personally need. Your supervisor is not modest, of integrity, honest, and authentic and does not share his thoughts and feelings with you. Your supervisor in You&B is not courageous, does not allow for mistakes, and does not provide freedom to you can develop your own abilities. Your supervisor does not show great humanity and understanding of your position.

After the leadership description, one of four different organizational problematic situations was randomly presented to participants. From the crisis description of Studies 1 and 2, these four organizational problematic situations were obtained as a result of combining the unethical organizational behavior manipulation (unethical or ethical organizational behavior) and the organizational crisis manipulation (crisis or no-crisis) into the same situation description.

All four organizational problematic situations’ descriptions were introduced by the sentence “Components with suspicious effects on health were found in You&B

hygiene products”. Afterwards in the organizational situation description, the manipulation of unethical organizational behavior manipulation was included. Specifically, we took into consideration if the enterprise not implemented a solution (unethical organizational behavior) or implemented it (ethical organizational behavior) after acknowledging the health risk of the products. For the unethical organizational behavior condition, the description “You&B decided at that time to continue using these chemicals in its hygiene products despite the possible health risks” was included. For the ethical behavior condition, the description “You&B decided at that time to remove these chemicals in its hygiene products to avoid possible health risks” was presented to participants instead.

At the end of the organizational situation description, the manipulation of the organizational crisis manipulation was included. Since the risk for organization profitability is a defining aspect of crisis (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010), we differentiate the crisis from the no-crisis situation by the presence or absence, respectively, of the public complaint linked to negative consequences on the organizational sales. Specifically, for the organizational crisis condition the following description was presented:

“However, this information has now come to light on the occasion of the official complaint by the Organization of Consumers and Users (OCU) and it has been published in major media in the country, which has led to a decline in sales in these products”.

For the organizational no-crisis condition the description “This information did not come to light and it has had no impact for the company” was presented to participants instead.

The resulting four organizational problematic situations' descriptions (unethical crisis, unethical no-crisis, ethical crisis, ethical no-crisis) are presented in Appendix B.

Finally, participants were requested to answer first the items about psychological needs satisfaction, second, the meaningful work items and finally the workplace deviance scale. Each variable was presented in differentiated sequential pages. Afterwards, participants were thanked and the answer was automatically archived.

4.4.3.3. Measures. All answer were recruited in a 7-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very much).

Organizational problematic situation. As experimental check of the organizational problematic situation, we asked participants to identify the situation lived by the organization that was randomly presented to them. Specifically, the instruction provided was "Please, think about the situation lived by You&B and choose the option which better describe that situation". Four options were presented linked to the four organizational problematic situations randomly presented to participants. These four options were "The You&B organization is an ethical enterprise but it is suffering a crisis", "The You&B organization is an ethical enterprise and it is not suffering a crisis", "The You&B organization is an unethical enterprise and it is suffering a crisis", and "The You&B organization is an unethical enterprise and it is not suffering a crisis". We included in the final sample those participants who correctly identified the organizational problematic situation in which they were assigned to. Specifically, a 15.34% (29 people) were excluded from a 189 people sample leading to the current sample of 160 participants.

Servant leadership self-reports (SL self-reports). We measured the levels of servant leadership just after the servant leadership manipulation was presented. We assessed

servant leadership self-reports by the same three items described in Study 1 which were also used in Study 2. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .98.

Psychological needs satisfaction. We assessed psychological needs satisfaction by six items from Gagné, Ryan, and Bargmann (2003) and Mayer et al. 's measures (2008) following van Dierendonck, et al. (2014) methodology. We adapted the instructions to set participants into the experimental situation by introducing the items with "If I think about my job in You&B". These six items reflect by pairs the dimensions of Autonomy need satisfaction (e.g. "I feel like I can make a lot of inputs to deciding how my job gets done"), Competence need satisfaction (e.g. "I do not feel very competent when I am at work", reversed scored), and Relatedness need satisfaction (e.g. "People at work care about me"). The Cronbach's alpha of this scale was .74.

Meaningful work. We assessed meaningful work through the 10 items of the Work as Meaning Inventory (WAMI) proposed by Steger et al. (2012). This scale includes the three dimensions of Positive meaning in work (4 items), Meaning making through work (3 items), and Greater good motivations (3 items). We adapted the instructions and the items presented to respondents in order to request information about the experimental setting. An item example of each dimension are "I have found a meaningful career in You&B", "I view my work at You&B as contributing to my personal growth", and "I know my work at You&B" makes a positive difference in the world", respectively. The Cronbach's alpha of the meaningful work scale was .94.

Workplace deviance. We used the same four items included in Study 1 and 2. The Cronbach's alpha was .83.

4.4.4. Results

4.4.4.1. Experimental check. We developed a *t*-test with SL self-reports as dependent variable and the servant leadership conditions as factor (i.e. High SL or low

Table 4.2. Means and Standard Deviations for Psychological Needs Satisfaction, Meaningful Work and Workplace deviance in Study 3

	Psychological Needs Satisfaction				Meaningful Work			Workplace deviance		
	Organizational crisis behavior	Overall	Servant leadership (SL)		Overall	Servant leadership (SL)		Overall	Servant leadership (SL)	
			High SL	Low SL		High SL	Low SL		High SL	Low SL
			M (SD)	M (SD)		M (SD)	M (SD)		M (SD)	M (SD)
Ethical	Crisis	4.25 (1.30)	4.98 (0.82)	3.51 (1.28)	3.66 (1.29)	4.29 (1.12)	3.02 (1.15)	2.67 (1.31)	2.20 (1.02)	3.14 (1.41)
	No-crisis	4.57 (1.20)	5.40 (0.82)	3.73 (0.92)	4.15 (1.60)	5.15 (1.33)	3.16 (1.18)	2.70 (1.58)	2.10 (1.41)	3.30 (1.54)
	Overall	4.41 (1.25)	5.19 (0.84)	3.62 (1.11)	3.90 (1.47)	4.72 (1.29)	3.09 (1.15)	2.68 (1.44)	2.15 (1.21)	3.22 (1.46)
Unethical	Crisis	4.04 (1.26)	4.69 (1.02)	3.38 (1.14)	2.95 (1.45)	3.72 (1.46)	2.19 (0.98)	3.27 (1.58)	2.46 (1.14)	4.08 (1.56)
	No-crisis	3.88 (1.16)	4.57 (0.82)	3.18 (1.03)	2.69 (1.27)	3.34 (1.34)	2.04 (0.79)	3.64 (1.40)	3.45 (1.39)	3.83 (1.42)
	Overall	3.96 (1.20)	4.84 (0.93)	3.28 (1.08)	2.82 (1.36)	3.53 (1.40)	2.11 (0.88)	3.45 (1.49)	2.96 (1.35)	3.95 (1.48)
Overall	Crisis	4.14 (1.27)	4.84 (0.93)	3.45 (1.20)	3.30 (1.41)	4.01 (1.32)	2.60 (1.14)	2.97 (1.47)	2.33 (1.07)	3.61 (1.55)
	No-crisis	4.22 (1.22)	4.98 (0.92)	3.46 (1.00)	3.42 (1.61)	4.25 (1.60)	2.60 (1.13)	3.17 (1.56)	1.78 (1.54)	3.56 (1.48)
	Total	4.18 (1.25)	4.91 (0.92)	3.45 (1.10)	3.36 (1.51)	4.12 (1.46)	2.60 (1.13)	3.07 (1.51)	2.55 (1.34)	3.58 (1.51)

SL). The t -test indicated that the SL self-reports were significantly higher in the high SL condition ($M = 5.85$, $SD = 1.27$) than in the low SL condition ($M = 1.38$, $SD = 0.80$), $t(158) = 26.64$, $p < .001$. Based on these results, the servant leadership manipulation was considered successful.

4.4.4.2. Workplace deviance. We analysis by an ANOVA the effect on workplace deviance of the servant leadership style conditions (i.e. low SL and high SL), the ethical organizational behavior conditions (i.e. ethical and unethical organizational behavior), and the organizational crisis conditions (i.e. crisis and no-crisis), and their interactions as independent variables (see descriptive in Table 2).

The ANOVA results indicated a significant direct effect of the servant leadership conditions which showed that those participants in the high SL condition ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 1.34$) reported lower workplace deviance than participants of the low SL condition ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 1.51$) ($F[1, 152] = 22.54$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .13$). The direct effect of the organizational crisis conditions was not significant ($F[1, 152] = 0.85$, $p = .359$, $\eta^2 = .01$), rejecting hypothesis 1.a. Besides, the direct effect of the ethical organizational behavior conditions on workplace deviance was significant ($F[1, 152] = 12.52$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .08$). Specifically, those participants in the ethical organizational behavior condition ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.44$) showed lower workplace deviance than those participants in the unethical organizational behavior condition ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.49$). Thus, hypothesis 2.a was supported.

None of the interaction effects on workplace deviance was significant. The interaction effect of the servant leadership conditions with the organizational crisis conditions was not significant ($F[1, 152] = 1.26$, $p = .264$, $\eta^2 = .01$). Thus, hypothesis 1.b was supported. The interaction effect of the servant leadership conditions with the ethical organizational behavior conditions was not significant ($F[1, 152] = 0.03$, $p = .863$, $\eta^2 <$

.01). Thus, hypothesis 2.b was supported. The interaction effect of the ethical organizational behavior conditions with the organizational crisis conditions was not significant ($F[1, 152] = 0.60, p = .438, \eta^2 < .01$). It was not significant either the triple interaction between the three factors (i.e. the servant leadership conditions, the ethical organizational behavior conditions, and the organizational crisis conditions) ($F[1, 152] = 2.98, p = .086, \eta^2 = .02$).

4.4.4.3. Psychological needs satisfaction. An unifcatorialANOVA was carried on with the servant leadership style conditions (i.e. low SL and high SL) as independent variable in predicting psychological needs satisfaction (see descriptives in Table 2).

The results revealed a significant direct effect of the servant leadership conditions indicating that those people in the high SL condition ($M = 4.91, SD = 0.92$) have higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction than participants in the low SL condition ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.10$) ($F[1, 158] = 83.14, p < .001, \eta^2 = .35$). Thus, hypothesis

4.4.4.4. Meaningful work. We carried on an ANOVA with the servant leadership style conditions (i.e. low SL and high SL) as factor in predicting meaningful work (see descriptive in Table 2). The ANOVA results showed that the effect of the servant leadership conditions on meaningful work was significant, being the participants in the high SL condition ($M = 4.12, SD = 1.46$) those who showed higher levels of meaningful work after the crisis compared to the participants in the low SL condition ($M = 2.60, SD = 1.13$) ($F[1, 158] = 54.21, p < .001, \eta^2 = .26$).

4.4.4.5. Indirect effects test of servant leadership on workplace deviance through psychological needs and meaningful work. Finally, we tested the conditional effects of psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work as sequential mediators, in that order, of the servant leadership conditions on workplace deviance in all

problematic contexts (i.e. crisis, no crisis, unethical, and ethical contexts). In doing so, we used the PROCESS macro described by Hayes (2013) (available at www.afhayes.com). Psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work were mean centered, and the servant leadership conditions (i.e. - 0.5 = low SL, 0.5 = high SL) were appropriately coded (Hayes, 2013).

The baseline regression model including servant leadership conditions as unique predictor showed the model as significant explaining workplace deviance ($F[1, 158] = 20.92, p < .001, r^2 = .12$). In this baseline model, the servant leadership conditions showed a significant direct effect on workplace deviance which indicated that participants with a servant supervisor showed lower deviance levels ($\beta = -4.57, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.48, -0.59]$).

The proposed final model adding psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work to the servant leadership conditions as predictors explained significant workplace deviance variance ($F[3, 156] = 18.76, p < .001, r^2 = .26$). Results indicated a significant direct effect of psychological needs satisfaction ($\beta = -3.02, p = .003, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.59, -0.12]$), and meaningful work ($\beta = -2.63, p = .009, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.42, -0.06]$) on workplace deviance, supporting hypothesis 3.a and 4.a respectively. In this model, the servant leadership conditions showed no longer a direct significant effect on workplace deviance ($\beta = -0.56, p = .579, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.66, 0.37]$).

Although the direct effect of the servant leadership conditions on workplace deviance was not significant, the results about the indirect effects indicated that the total effect of the servant leadership conditions on workplace deviance was significant ($t = -4.57, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.48, -0.59]$). Thus, the relationship between having a supervisor which shows high servant leadership behaviors and a reduction of the

workplace deviance levels after the problematic organizational situation was full mediated.

Attending to the indirect paths that explain this full mediation, we observed that the three possible paths through psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work had a significant effect. One of these paths, Indirect path 1, indicated that the SL conditions have an indirect significant effect on workplace deviance through psychological needs satisfaction (-0.52 , $SE = 0.17$, 95% CI $[-0.86, -0.23]$). Thus, hypothesis 3.c was supported. Specifically, the people in the high SL condition had lower levels of workplace deviance than the people in the low SL condition because the people in the SL conditions had higher psychological needs satisfaction than those in the low SL condition ($t = 9.12$, $p < .001$, 95% CI $[1.14, 1.77]$). Posteriorly, the psychological needs satisfaction reduced the levels of workplace deviance after the problematic organizational situation as described in the final model.

Another path, Indirect path 2, indicated that the servant leadership conditions had a significant effect on the workplace deviance levels through meaningful work (-0.15 , $SE = 0.08$, 95% CI $[-0.37, -0.02]$). Thus, hypothesis 4.c was supported. Indirect path 2 indicated that people in the high SL condition had lower workplace deviance levels than people in the low SL condition because people in the high SL condition showed higher levels of meaningful work after the problematic organizational situation ($t = 2.71$, $p = .007$, 95% CI $[0.16, 1.05]$). Besides, higher meaningful work levels led to lower workplace deviance intentions as shown in the final model.

In the final path we can observe that Hypothesis 5.a was supported since higher levels of psychological needs satisfaction led to higher meaningful work levels ($t = 6.97$, $p < .001$, 95% CI $[0.45, 0.81]$). As well, high servant leadership was linked to higher meaningful work than low servant leadership partial mediated by psychological needs

satisfaction (0.92, SE = 0.16, 95% CI [0.64, 1.25]), thus supporting hypothesis 5.b. Finally, Indirect path 3, indicated that the servant leadership conditions had a significant effect on workplace deviance because its effect on meaningful work through psychological needs satisfaction (-0.22, SE = 0.10, 95% CI [-0.42, -0.05]), which supports hypothesis 5.c. As a resume, people in the high SL condition had lower levels of workplace deviance than people in the low SL condition because high SL was linked to higher satisfaction of the psychological needs and, consequently, higher meaningful work.

None of the pair comparisons of the indirect path was significant, thus, Indirect path 1 - Indirect path 2 comparison was no significant (-0.37, SE = 0.21, 95% CI [-0.79, 0.03]), Indirect path 1 - Indirect path 3 comparison was neither significant (-0.30, SE = 0.22, 95% CI [-0.72, 0.14]), and Indirect path 2 - Indirect path 3 comparison was no significant (0.07, SE = 0.09, 95% CI [0.36, -0.05]). Thus, all paths had a similar indirect effect size in explaining the relationship between the servant leadership conditions and workplace deviance (See Figure 4.1).

4.4.5. Discussion

This third experiment also supports the effectiveness of servant leadership on reducing workplace deviance in organizational crises. Moreover, present results pinpoint that servant leadership effects on workplace deviance are kept no matter the presence or absence of the organizational crisis and its consequences (Hypothesis 1.b) or if there is or not an ethical organizational behavior involved (Hypothesis 2.b).

Regarding these last factors, the absence or presence of the crisis had no effect on workplace deviance (Hypothesis 1.a), meanwhile, oppositely, the ethical factor did

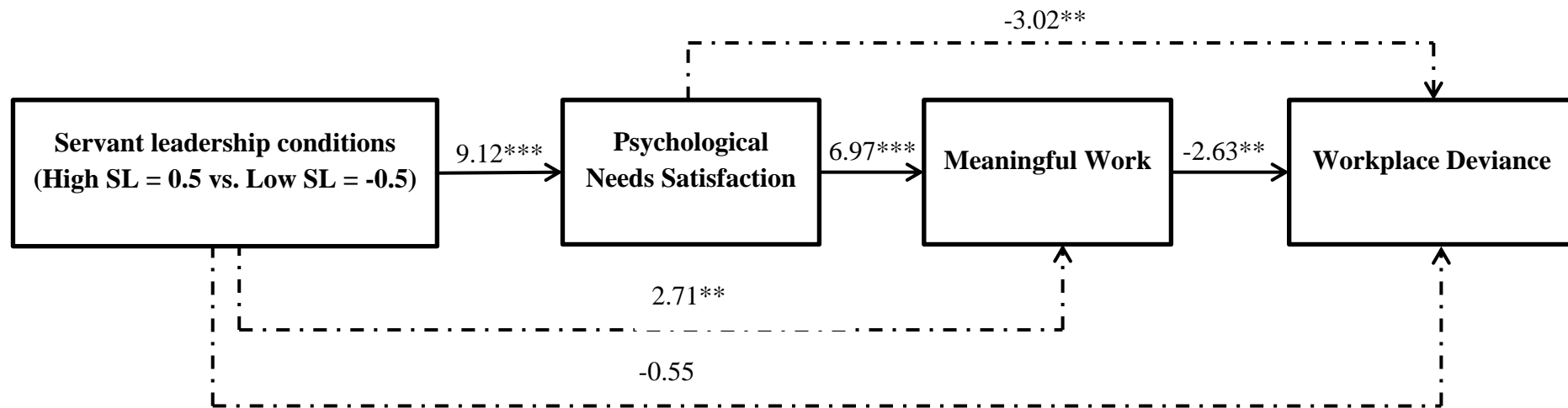


Figure 4.1. Proposed explanatory model of the servant leadership indirect effects on workplace deviance through psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work in experiment 3. The solid lines describe the hypothesized paths while the broken lines describe the alternative possible paths that were also tested. All direct and indirect effects were significant but the direct path from the servant leadership conditions to workplace deviance.

impact on it. Concretely, the presence of an unethical organizational behavior was linked to higher workplace deviance levels (Hypothesis 2.a).

Finally, we analyzed the mechanism by which servant leadership reduces workplace deviance. At this regard, the mediation analysis indicated that both, psychological needs satisfaction and meaningful work, partial mediate the effects of servant leadership. Specifically, servant leadership was observed to reduce workplace deviance by both preserving the satisfaction of employees' needs (Hypotheses 3.a-3.c) and the perception of work as meaningful (Hypotheses 4.a-4.c). Moreover, results extended the comprehension of these mechanisms by indicating an additional serial indirect effect from servant leadership to workplace deviance through employees' needs satisfaction and its positive impact on meaningful work (Hypotheses 5.a-5.c).

4.6. GENERAL DISCUSSION

The present study gives empirical knowledge about the role of servant leadership on employees' workplace deviance in organizational crises. Experiments 1 and 2 pinpointed towards incremental beneficial effects of servant leaders in reducing workplace deviance compared to transformational leaders in organizational crises contexts. Experiment 3 added evidence about the effectiveness of servant leaders by spreading the reductive role on workplace deviance to different contexts as crisis and no-crisis circumstances and in settings in which there are or not ethical behavior problems involved. Moreover, this last study gave information about the process by which servant leaders influence employee's perceptions leading to a reduction of the workplace deviance. Specifically, we observed that the care of people's needs satisfaction and meaningful work are important explanatory mechanisms of the effects of servant leadership on workplace deviance.

Firstly, we observed that servant leadership is a valuable leadership style for adequate managing employees' workplace deviance in organizational crises. In this respect, experiments 1 and 2 highlighted the incremental effect of servant leadership when compared to transformational leadership in decreasing workplace deviance. These results are in line with the previous meta-analysis of Hoch and colleagues (2016) where servant leaders were the only leadership style which showed incremental validity over transformational leadership. When compared to transformational leaders, servant leaders' ethical motivation to set its followers first appears a key leadership in guiding followers during crisis giving support to previous theoretical proposals (e.g. Gabriel, 2015; Gerstein y cols., 2016). Specifically, we added support to servant leadership incremental validity by extending its effects on the study of workplace deviance. Moreover, this study extends previous research about the differential validity of both leadership styles to crisis contexts given an answer to the need of studies on leadership in the crisis field (James y cols., 2011).

Secondly, we observed a differential impact of maintain and change strategies for servant and transformational leadership. In this regard, when the same leadership style behaviors were maintain before and after crisis, transformational leadership was linked to higher workplace deviance. On the contrary, to keep a servant leadership style showed the lowest level of workplace deviance. These results indicate that transformational leadership is more negatively affected by organizational crises than servant leadership. This might be explained by the differential influence mechanisms of both leaderships. At this regard, while servant leaders' influence is based on setting others first, transformational leaders lead based on charismatic influence (Stone y cols., 2004). As propose indicated by previous studies, the repetitive used of charismatic influence in crises may reduce the beneficial impact of this idealized

influenced by setting worse perceptions of the leader (Davis & Gardner, 2012). Based on all the exposed and the present study results, it would be recommended to transformational leaders to change their leadership style into servant behaviors after crisis to reduce the possibility of workplace deviance.

Thirdly, in our last experiment we deepened in the mechanisms by which servant leadership might reduce workplace deviance. Specifically, our results indicated that this ethical-driven leadership strives desirable effects by caring of the individual needs satisfaction of followers and positing a positive frame for followers' meaningful work in different contexts (i.e. crisis, no crisis, unethical, and ethical contexts). These results highlight a wide range of contexts in which servant leadership is effective and give support to previous theorization about its effectiveness in crisis contexts (e.g. Gabriel, 2015; Gerstein y cols., 2016).

Regarding peoples' needs, servant leadership is observed to be able to care of satisfying the autonomy, competence and relatedness needs of their followers. In this sense, servant leadership altruistically care of workers feeling that employees are individual valuable and fostering them to take decisions and have the control of their own work (Liden y cols., 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011). As such, servant leaders are observed to satisfy followers' needs in crisis contexts, but also in no crisis, ethical and no ethical contexts, extending the preceding literature about servant leadership (e.g. Mayer y cols., 2008).

Regarding meaningful work, servant leadership is observed to promote positive meaningfulness supporting the value of these leaders for meaning making processes (Correia de Sousa, & van Dierendonck, 2010) and extending these valuable effects in the context of organizational crises and, furthermore, to no crisis, unethical and ethical contexts. Accordingly, servant leaders' stewardship guide followers based on ethical-

driven values and framing valuable purposes (van Dierendonck, 2011). In crisis and the other tested circumstances, these leaders seem to preserve a clear purposeful guidance which allows workers to maintain their perception of work as meaningful. In fact, servant leadership directly promotes clear directedness which is posited a requirement for meaning construction (Baumeister, & Vohs, 2002).

Additionally, we observed a partial effect in which servant leaders promotion of employees' needs satisfaction enhances meaningful work. As Chiniara and Bentein (2016) indicated, the satisfaction of people needs can promote positive creation of meaning and our results indicated that specifically also in organizational crises, in unethical and ethical circumstances. Therefore, the protection of followers needs promotes meaningfulness about work. In this process, servant leadership has been arisen as desirable to care of people needs and by this to extend the perception of work as meaningful. Thus, these leaders focus on employees allow followers to perceive themselves as individually valuable and connected to others. By this, servant leaders allow followers to build purposeful connections essential for meaning creation (Baumeister, & Vohs, 2002).

Besides the exposed and in line with Lawrence and Robinson's propositions (2007), the promotion of both aspects, needs and meaningfulness, limits the provocation of workplace deviance. This process pinpoint towards the desirability of attending to individual needs to guide followers in crisis supporting their proposed value in order to prevent negative attitudes and behaviors (Deci, & Ryan, 2000). As well, the effects through meaningful work pinpoint to the construction of meaning as an important process to understand employee's behavior. In this regard, the present research remarks the important of meaning as mediator of undesirable outcomes in crisis which was already highlighted in meta-analysis in no crisis contexts (Humphrey y cols.,

2007). Furthermore, from our study, we gave support to the key role of servant supervisors in the meaning making process of employees during organizational crises in line with previous research (e.g. Zhang y cols., 2012). Moreover, these results specifically support the importance of servant leaders for setting a favorable work context for meaning process (e.g. Correia de Sousa, & van Dierendonck, 2010) in a wide range of organizational problematic circumstances including crisis. As a resume, servant leadership promotes a protective context for workers preventing the provocation of workplace deviance.

Fourthly regarding the contextual factors of the crisis, only the unethical organizational behavior component had a direct significant effect on the appearance of workplace deviance but the crisis presence or absence had no effect. This may be explained by the fact that the perception of the organization as unethical is propose to lead to stronger negative reactions and more possibilities of workplace deviance (Lawrence & Robinson, 2007), independently of the organization sustainability as defined in the crisis context. In this sense, the presence of an unethical behavior describes a circumstance in which the organization is aware of the harmful impact on people by the health problem but no intervention is provided. As posited by Coombs (2007, 2010), specifically this context may lead to a higher negative impact of crisis since the organizational reputation is not repair by searching a solution, as proposed in the ethical condition. In this respect, employees are inclined towards workplace deviance because of the perception on the unethical organizational behavior context as unfair (Lawrence, & Robinson, 2007).

Additionally, we studied the interaction of the ethical and crisis contextual factor on the relationship of servant leadership and workplace deviance. The results attaining this respect pinpointed that servant leaders are equally effective in all contexts (i.e.

crisis, no-crisis, ethical, or unethical contexts). In line with previous literature, servant leaders appear as effective in general no-crisis contexts (e.g. Hoch, y cols., 2016) as well as desirable in organizational crisis (e.g. Gerstein, y cols., 2011). Besides, servant leaders are observed to be effective in ethical and unethical contexts, even if workplace deviance is significantly enhance in these last circumstances. Since the characteristics of servant leadership endorse ethical processes (Jaramillo, y cols., 2015), it is not surprising that this leadership leaders might be capable of preventing from workplace deviance even in unethical circumstances.

4.6.1. Practical Implications

First, this study highlights the value of servant leadership on the management of crisis. The focus on workers and the ethical concern of servant leaders (Mayer y cols., 2008) appears as a key in preventing followers from performing negative attitudes against the organization in these convulsing periods. This aspect reflects that prevention training focused on servant leadership may be potential beneficial for handling crisis.

Second, our findings suggest that it would be recommended to train leaders in adaptive behaviors to face crisis. At this regard, to be trained to adapt the leadership style and conducting servant behaviors in times of crisis might be especially advantageous for transformational leaders. Thus, to be able to change into servant leadership behaviors might prevent the organization to suffer adverse behaviors from workers.

4.6.2. Limitations and Future Research

Our study was developed based on an experimental methodology. This procedure allowed us to test causal relationships and delimitate the possible explanatory mechanism (Aronson y cols., 1998). A challenging goal in order to

enhance the ecological validity would be to direct future research to observe the effects of servant leadership on workplace deviance in actual crisis contexts through a longitudinal design even knowing the difficult goal that it involves.

A final limitation is the lack of behavioral measures. At this regard, we focused on self-reported measures given the perceptual nature of crisis (Coombs, 2007) which allowed us to obtain valuable evidence. Even so, future research might extend the validity of the observed effects by studying objective outcomes.

4.7. CONCLUSION

Servant leadership appears as an effective leadership style in managing employees' workplace deviance in organizational crises. This leadership has shown incremental effectiveness over transformational leadership and its desirability after crisis to prevent negative attitudes. Moreover, servant leadership is able to prevent workplace deviance in ethical and unethical organizational context no matter the presence or absence of an organizational crisis. Specifically, the satisfaction of people's need and the promotion of work as meaningful seem to be the mechanisms by which the desirable effect of servant leadership on workplace deviance is exerted.

CAPÍTULO 5:

DISCUSIÓN GENERAL

La presente tesis engloba tres estudios cuyos objetivos fueron la profundización en el constructo del liderazgo de servicio a través de la validación transcultural de la escala SLS y el estudio de la eficacia de este estilo de liderazgo y los mecanismos explicativos de dicha eficacia en la promoción del alcance de metas y la prevención de comportamientos contraproducentes. Los resultados recabados en el primer estudio permiten sostener que la SLS en su versión en castellano permite una medida válida del constructo en México, Argentina y España. Asimismo, los resultados en el segundo estudio y tercer estudio refuerzan el valor del liderazgo de servicio para el desarrollo de resultados deseables por parte de los trabajadores. Así, en el primer estudio se observa el valor del liderazgo de servicio para promover la promoción del alcance diario de metas en el trabajo. Al mismo tiempo, el segundo estudio refuerza la importancia de estos líderes señalando el relevante papel que pueden tener para la prevención de comportamientos disruptivos en contextos difíciles como son las crisis organizacionales. Además, los resultados de estos dos últimos estudios corroboran que la generación de sentido resulta un mecanismo clave a la hora de explicar cómo el liderazgo de servicio facilita que los trabajadores puedan desempeñar conductas deseables.

5.1. VALIDACIÓN TRANSCULTURAL DE LA SLS Y DIFERENCIAS ENTRE PAÍSES

El primer estudio, con la escala de SLS, ha permitido validar transculturalmente una medida multidimensional en castellano del constructo de liderazgo de servicio en tres países de habla hispana como son España, México y Argentina. Los resultados de este estudio demuestran la validez factorial de este instrumento en dichas culturas lo que corrobora los ocho factores (Empoderamiento, Responsabilizar, Coraje, Aceptación interpersonal, Ceder méritos, Humildad, Autenticidad, y Responsabilidad social) de la

escala original presentada por van Dierendonck y Nuijten (2011). Esta complejidad multidimensional es coherente con el marco teórico desde el que se desarrolla la escala y provee de un instrumento de valía para el estudio conjunto del liderazgo de servicio o del funcionamiento diferencial de características concretas (van Dierendonck, 2011).

Complementariamente, el proceso de validación sostiene la validez convergente de la escala dado que los resultados indican que el liderazgo de servicio se relaciona positivamente con la satisfacción laboral de los empleados y con menor estrés de rol en España y México. Estos resultados están en línea con investigaciones previas que señalan la relación positiva entre tener un líder servidor y percibir el trabajo como satisfactorio (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, y Roberts, 2009) y con menores niveles de estrés (Chen y Silverthorne, 2005; Rivkin, Diestel, y Schmidt, 2014). De este modo, se refuerza la validez del liderazgo de servicio medido con la SLS en relación a actitudes positivas y salud en los trabajadores.

Además de la validez transcultural de la escala SLS, este primer estudio permitió comparar entre países las puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio entre los países hispanohablantes objeto del estudio (España, Argentina y México) y los países de escalas previas como Italia (Bobbio y cols., 2012), Países Bajos y Reino Unido (van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). Como se hipotetizaba, Argentina mostró mayores puntuaciones de liderazgo de servicio que México y España. Estos resultados están en línea con los menores niveles de distancia de poder en el país argentino (Hofstede, 2009). Así, dado que el liderazgo de servicio fomenta la cesión de poder y la autonomía de los trabajadores (Patterson, 2003; Laub, 1999), este liderazgo de servicio conecta mejor con los valores culturales de Argentina que reflejan la aceptación de menor desigualdad de poder.

En la comparación con el resto de países las hipótesis se sustentan parcialmente mostrando relaciones entre los valores culturales y el liderazgo de servicio más complejas de lo que se

esperaba. En primer lugar, se planteaba que los tres países, Argentina, México y España, junto con Italia, iban a mostrar menores puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio que los Países Bajos y Reino Unido dado que estos dos últimos países muestran mayor preferencia por líderes poco egoístas y que fomenten la participación (Javidan y cols., 2006), en línea con las características de un líder servidor (v.g. van Dierendonck, 2011). Sin embargo, Argentina destaca por encima del resto de países en las puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio.

Atendiendo a las puntuaciones comparativas entre países según Hofstede (2009) (ver Tabla 2.1 en el Capítulo 2), Argentina presenta los menores niveles de individualismo (o mayores niveles de colectivismo) junto con México. Es decir, la cultura argentina muestra preferencia por redes sociales más allá del cuidado a uno mismo y los seres más cercanos donde se considera incuestionable el cuidado de los demás como un valor social en todos los grupos de los que participa la persona (Hofstede, 2009). Estos valores están muy en línea con el factor de responsabilidad social enraizado en la teoría del liderazgo de servicio como un factor distintivo de este estilo (Russell y Stone, 2002; Spears, 2010; van Dierendonck y Nuijten, 2011). Así, este aspecto hace referencia a la responsabilidad moral que los líderes de servicio demuestran en la visión del desarrollo del conjunto de la organización hacia propósitos éticos donde se cuide del conjunto de las personas relacionadas con la organización (van Dierendonck, 2011). Desde esta perspectiva, los mayores niveles de Italia en individualismo comparados con México, que presenta los niveles más bajos, podrían explicar también los mayores niveles de liderazgo de servicio en la muestra mexicana. En efecto, el factor de individualismo-colectivismo ha sido recientemente destacado como una de las posibles fuentes de diferencias culturales en liderazgo de servicio (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017) por lo que los resultados aquí observados darían apoyo a este supuesto.

Además de las altas puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio en la muestra Argentina, podemos observar que México y España sí presentan menores niveles que los Países Bajos como se esperaba, pero presentan niveles similares a Reino Unido. En este caso, España y México presentan también menores niveles de individualismo que los Países Bajos pero especialmente menores que Reino Unido (Hofstede, 2009). Si bien esto podría explicar porque no hay diferencias de España y México con el grupo anglosajón, no explica por qué las puntuaciones de los Países Bajos son significativamente más altas. En este sentido, el valor de masculinidad-feminidad presentado por Hofstede (2009) (ver Figura 2.1 en el Capítulo 2) indica que los Países Bajos destacan por tener unos valores bajos de masculinidad frente a los del resto de los países destacados, especialmente con respecto a Reino Unido, que presenta los niveles más altos. El valor de masculinidad refleja el valor cultural por el éxito personal, la competitividad y el alcance de objetivos y metas materiales. De manera opuesta, la cultura holandesa representaría valores de feminidad donde se prima la modestia, la cooperación, el bienestar y el cuidado (Hofstede, 2009). Al igual que en el caso del colectivismo, la feminidad representa valores presentes en el liderazgo de servicio. Así, los líderes servidores se caracterizan por el cuidado de los demás, el trabajo cooperativo y la toma de decisiones consensuadas (Laub, 1999). Por ello, aunque el factor de colectivismo podría ser importante, la presencia de una cultura basada en la feminidad también favorecería el desarrollo de los líderes de servicio.

En resumen, se puede observar que no sólo la distancia de poder como ya se ha expuesto, sino las diferencias en individualismo-colectivismo y masculinidad-feminidad podrían estar explicando las diferencias en la percepción del liderazgo de servicio en función de la cultura. Así, la baja distancia de poder, el colectivismo y la feminidad serían valores en relación a una cultura igualitaria y centrada en el bien de los demás, lo cual encaja con los valores que Mittal y Dorfman (2012) han observado que favorecen la aceptación del

liderazgo de servicio a nivel cultural. Con todo ello, los resultados de esta tesis refuerzan la necesidad de investigar en la transculturalidad del constructo (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017) y contribuyen a dar luz a las diferencias culturales en el liderazgo de servicio.

5.2. RESULTADOS SOBRE LA EFECTIVIDAD DEL LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO

Uno de los objetivos de esta tesis era profundizar en el estudio de la eficacia del liderazgo de servicio. En este sentido, los resultados del segundo y tercer estudio indican que el liderazgo de servicio es un estilo de liderazgo adecuado para guiar a los trabajadores hacia la promoción del alcance de metas y la prevención de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes. En base a estos resultados, un primer aspecto a destacar es que el liderazgo de servicio es un liderazgo eficaz para facilitar resultados deseables a nivel del trabajador como resaltan estudios previos (v.g. Hoch y cols., 2016). Concretamente, al favorecer que los trabajadores consigan las metas laborales que se proponen y que reduzcan los comportamientos disruptivos, estarían favoreciendo las conductas base para la productividad organizacional (v.g. Dunlop y Lee, 2004).

En relación al *alcance de metas*, los resultados de esta tesis sirven para dar apoyo a las supuestos teóricos de Greenleaf (1977) sobre los que se asienta el desarrollo del estudio en liderazgo de servicio (v.g. van Dierendonck, 2011). En este sentido, las teorías sobre liderazgo de servicio plantean que estos líderes destacan por enfocarse en promover el alcance de las metas de los trabajadores incluso por encima de las metas de la organización (Liden y cols., 2008; Russell y Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). En base a la literatura revisada, el segundo estudio de esta tesis representa el primer desarrollo empírico conocido dirigido concretamente a investigar la relación entre el liderazgo de servicio y la

consecución de metas. Por ello, los resultados de esta investigación dan fuerza a las bases teóricas desde las que se sustenta el liderazgo de servicio.

Además, los resultados de este segundo estudio señalan que el liderazgo de servicio es útil para el alcance de metas a nivel diario. Concretamente, los días en los que el líder se muestra más como servidor, los trabajadores son capaces de alcanzar sus metas en mayor medida a lo largo de los días. Con estos datos, la presente investigación refuerza la eficacia de los comportamientos característicos de los líderes de servicio observándose la importancia de mantener estos comportamientos a lo largo de los días. En base a la información que se conoce, este estudio es el primero que estudia cómo las variaciones de diario en los comportamientos del liderazgo de servicio puede impactar a los trabajadores. Con ello, se avanza en la investigación sobre los procesos a nivel de diario para entender la interrelación entre líder y empleados (e.g., Breevaart, y cols., 2014; Gevers y Demerouti, 2013).

En relación a los *comportamientos laborales contraproducentes*, los resultados de los experimentos del tercer estudio indican que el liderazgo de servicio no es únicamente eficaz en la promoción de conductas deseables, sino en la prevención de conductas indeseables en el contexto laboral. Así, se observa que el liderazgo de servicio promueve un contexto laboral que reduce la posibilidad de aparición de comportamientos disruptivos contra la organización incluso en contextos donde se ve aumentada su frecuencia, como las crisis organizacionales. Estos datos apoyan la literatura previa que relaciona el liderazgo de servicio con menos comportamientos incívicos contra la organización (Hunter y cols., 2013). Es más, observar esta relación en situaciones de crisis organizacional muestra que el liderazgo de servicio puede ser también eficaz en contextos difíciles.

Un aspecto clave de la eficacia observada en el tercer estudio a través de los experimentos es que los líderes servidores no son útiles en vacío sino también en

comparación con otro liderazgo como el transformacional. Concretamente, el liderazgo de servicio es más eficaz que el liderazgo transformacional para la prevención de los comportamientos disruptivos. Es más, el tercer estudio indica que para los líderes transformacionales es clave cambiar el estilo de liderazgo tras una crisis a un liderazgo de servicio dado que ayuda a reducir la probabilidad de que los trabajadores muestren comportamientos contraproducentes. De este modo, la presente investigación amplía la investigación sobre la validez incremental del liderazgo de servicio en comparación con otros estilos de liderazgo. En esta línea, el meta-análisis llevado a cabo por Hoch y colaboradores (2016) indica que el liderazgo de servicio explica una varianza incremental con respecto al liderazgo transformacional en diversas variables criterio como los comportamientos cívicos. Sin embargo, dicha investigación refiere la falta de estudios específicamente sobre comportamientos laborales contraproducentes que permita conocer si el liderazgo de servicio muestra nuevamente esa validez incremental (Hoch y cols., 2016). Por ello, la presente investigación cubre ese vacío mostrando que el liderazgo de servicio es comparativamente más eficaz que el liderazgo transformacional en la prevención de comportamientos disruptivos en situaciones de crisis.

5.3. LA GENERACIÓN DE SENTIDO

Los estudios recogidos en esta tesis no se limitan al estudio de los efectos de este estilo de liderazgo sino que ayudan a comprender los mecanismos por los que los líderes de servicio favorecen que los empleados puedan auto-regularse eficazmente. Específicamente, los resultados del segundo y tercer estudio refuerzan el papel de la *generación de sentido* como mecanismo explicativo clave del liderazgo de servicio aportando apoyo empírico a propuestas teóricas previas (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010; Irving y Berndt, 2017; Wong y Davey, 2007).

Los resultados de esta tesis muestran que el liderazgo de servicio es deseable para facilitar el sentido del trabajo y el sentido de la vida. Los líderes de servicio posibilitan que los trabajadores puedan desarrollarse hacia sus propias metas y propósitos vitales y a la vez adecuan un entorno organizacional guiado por máximas éticas (Patterson, 2003). De este modo, las personas que trabajan con los líderes servidores son provistas de un marco de valores claro al mismo tiempo que tienen la oportunidad de adaptar su conducta para hacerla coherente con los valores que desean. Además, la consideración y promoción del valor de cada trabajador permitiría que los trabajadores alcancen lo mejor de sí mismos en este proceso, pudiendo ver la valía de sí mismos y su capacidad (Laub, 1999). Así, la coherencia entre las conductas y las metas, la claridad de valores, y la percepción de valía y eficacia son aspectos clave que fomentan los líderes de servicio, y que se encuentran en la base de la generación de sentido (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002). Concretamente, los resultados de esta tesis indican que estos aspectos nucleares en los líderes servidores establecen un contexto laboral que permite percibir que tanto el trabajo como la vida están llenos de sentido.

Específicamente, con respecto al sentido del trabajo, los experimentos del tercer estudio muestran que el liderazgo de servicio provee de un marco que permite que los trabajadores perciban que su contexto laboral aporta un significado positivo a sus vidas y contribuye a un bien mayor. Estos resultados apoyan el papel esencial de estos líderes para facilitar un entorno de trabajo con significado (Correia de Sousa y van Dierendonck, 2010). Es más, al obtenerse los mismos resultados en contextos de crisis y problemas organizacionales, muestra que los líderes servidores pueden generar sentido incluso en aquellas situaciones que involucran un cambio del marco de significado (Parks, 2010).

Con respecto al sentido de la vida, los resultados del estudio de diario indican que los comportamientos del líder como servidor durante la jornada laboral facilitan que al final de

ese mismo día la persona perciba su vida como llena de sentido. De este modo, se resalta que el sentido no es algo estático o que sólo se varía como adaptación al cambio sino que, como plantean Baumeister y Vohs (2002), el sentido se crea desde las cosas que vivimos en nuestro día a día. Por ello, es importante contemplar la generación de sentido a nivel de diario y desde el contexto laboral (Garrosa, y cols., 2017; Steger, y cols., 2006; Steger, y cols., 2008). Así, los resultados de esta tesis muestran que el liderazgo de servicio puede facilitar en el trabajo las claves para el sentido también a través del día a día.

Los dos procesos de generación de sentido, tanto de la vida como del trabajo, permiten explicar los efectos del liderazgo de servicio en la promoción del alcance de metas y en la prevención de comportamientos contraproducentes. En el caso del alcance de metas, los días en que el líder se comporta como servidor, favorece que las personas integren su experiencia diaria con respecto a sus valores y perciban un mayor sentido vital que guía su conducta al día siguiente para alcanzar los objetivos que se proponen. En el caso de los comportamientos contraproducentes, el liderazgo de servicio protege el sentido del trabajo durante las crisis organizacionales y facilita que los trabajadores inhiban la realización de conductas incívicas en respuesta a dichas crisis.

En ambos casos, el liderazgo de servicio estaría promoviendo a través del sentido que los empleados realicen conductas de aproximación hacia una meta promoviendo o inhibiendo el comportamiento. En ambos casos, la eficacia de los líderes servidores se explica porque la presencia de sentido facilita procesos de auto-regulación autónoma al incidir en los procesos motivacionales de los trabajadores (Weinstein y cols., 2012). Concretamente, el tener sentido, del trabajo o de la vida, permite percibir que la conducta que se realiza y las metas y valores personales son coherentes (Diener y cols., 1999; Rosso y cols., 2010). Es decir, el liderazgo de servicio puede facilitar que los trabajadores se esfuercen en realizar acciones para completar las tareas laborales o para inhibir sus comportamientos disruptivos

al favorecer que perciban que el trabajo en la organización lo pueden realizar hacia propósitos importantes para ellos mismos, llenos de significado que les permiten sentirse valiosos y que contribuyen a un bien mayor (Wong y cols., 2017).

5.4. LOS PROCESOS DE AUTO-REGULACIÓN Y EL SENTIDO

Los resultados hasta aquí comentados muestran que un factor organizacional como el liderazgo de servicio puede favorecer los procesos de auto-regulación a través de la generación de sentido. Profundizando en estos procesos, podemos ver que los líderes de servicio no inciden de manera directa exclusivamente en la generación de sentido para ser eficaces sino también a través de la *satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas básicas* de los trabajadores. A este respecto, la teoría sobre el liderazgo de servicio plantea que en el enfoque de estos líderes en los trabajadores está ligada a prestar especial atención a sus necesidades (Greenlead, 1977; Laub 1999; van Dierendonck, 2011). En línea con los resultados de esta tesis, las investigaciones llevadas a cabo reafirman estas suposiciones al observar que efectivamente los líderes servidores facilitan la satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas (Chiniara y Bentein, 2016; Mayer y cols., 2008) incluso de manera diferencial por encima de otros líderes como el transformacional (van Dierendonck y cols., 2014). Así, los líderes de servicio facilitan que el contexto de trabajo haga sentir a los trabajadores autónomos, competentes y en relación con los demás.

En esta tesis se ha observado que es precisamente la satisfacción de estas necesidades uno de los factores explicativos que permite entender cómo los líderes servidores facilitan el sentido. En línea con la SDT (Weinstein y cols., 2012), el liderazgo de servicio conseguiría promocionar el sentido al incidir en los aspectos motivacionales más básicos ligados a las necesidades psicológicas de los empleados. De este modo, el liderazgo de servicio está favoreciendo que las personas se sientan capaces y autónomas en el desarrollo de sus vidas

hacia aquello que desean. Además, estarían favoreciendo que se sientan en conexión con los demás en un entorno de valor y cuidado (van Dierendonck y cols., 2014), todo lo cual explicaría la promoción del sentido (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002). Así, mediante la promoción de estos procesos de auto-regulación autónomos, los líderes servidores estarían favoreciendo que las personas sientan que el contexto de trabajo les permite ser coherentes consigo mismos y capaces de llevar a cabo conductas congruentes con sus valores hacia la creación de sentido (Chiniara y Bentein, 2016). Desde esta perspectiva, con esta tesis se avanza en el conocimiento de la relación entre la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas y los procesos de generación de sentido en el contexto organizacional donde se requiere estudios al respecto (Deci y cols., 2001). Es más, atendiendo a la necesidad señalada por Gillet y colaboradores (2012), el papel del liderazgo en esta relación aporta información sobre los factores organizacionales que pueden ayudar en este proceso.

Al mismo tiempo, los resultados de esta tesis muestran que este proceso se puede facilitar en crisis organizacionales. En estos contextos, la satisfacción de necesidades y el sentido positivo sobre la organización se pueden ver en riesgo (Lawrence y Robinson, 2007). Por ello, los resultados de esta tesis amplían la información sobre la relación entre las necesidades psicológicas y el sentido, y del liderazgo de servicio como factor predisponente en un contexto nuevo y complicado como son las crisis.

5.5. PROCESOS DE AUTO-REGULACIÓN EN PARALELO

Al mismo tiempo que se observa un proceso de auto-regulación a través del sentido, el estudio de diario descrito en el segundo capítulo resalta la existencia de un proceso de auto-regulación paralelo en el alcance de metas. Específicamente, los días en que los líderes muestran más comportamiento del liderazgo de servicio, facilitan que los

trabajadores tengan mayores niveles de vitalidad a la mañana siguiente para regular el comportamiento hacia la consecución de sus objetivos.

En línea con los planteamientos de la SDT (Deci y Ryan, 2000) y la teoría del ego-agotamiento de recursos (*ego-depletion theory*; Baumeister y Vohs, 2007), los comportamientos de los líderes de servicio estarían fomentando a través de la vitalidad que los trabajadores sientan que tienen la energía necesaria para llevar a cabo las tareas del día. Si bien el planteamiento principal de esta tesis hipotetizaba que este proceso se podía dar a través de la generación de sentido por favorecer la auto-regulación autónoma (Weinstein y cols., 2012), la generación de sentido y la vitalidad no describen un proceso en serie sino dos procesos paralelos e independientes. Por ello, el aumento de los niveles de vitalidad a través de los días facilitado por el liderazgo de servicio parece atender a causas distintas.

En base a ello, la posible explicación de estos efectos puede sustentarse a través de la teoría de Ampliación y Construcción de Recursos (BBT; Broaden-and-Build Theory Fredrickson, 2000). Este modelo plantea que aquellas personas que tienen más recursos de bienestar pueden generar al mismo tiempo la construcción de nuevos recursos. En esta línea, la literatura resalta que la promoción de bienestar en el entorno de trabajo puede facilitarlo fuera del mismo y éste repercutir a lo largo del tiempo en beneficios nuevamente en el contexto laboral (Ouweneel y cols., 2012). Dado que los líderes de servicio se preocupan por sus trabajadores y favorecen su bienestar (v.g. Parris y Peachey, 2013; Tang, Kwan, Zhang, y Zhu, 2016), este proceso podría explicar los aumentos en la vitalidad que favorecen alcanzar las metas laborales.

5.6. LIDERAZGO DE SERVICIO Y LOS BENEFICIOS FUERA DEL TRABAJO

En este punto, cabe destacar que a través de los procesos de vitalidad y sentido vital a lo largo de los días, el liderazgo de servicio promueve efectos que van más allá del contexto laboral y que, como mecanismos de su efectividad, revertirían positivamente de nuevo en el entorno de trabajo. En este sentido, los líderes de servicio muestran que las relaciones y el contexto de calidad que proveen dotan a sus empleados de ayuda para desarrollarse más allá del marco de trabajo. En esta línea, el liderazgo de servicio estaría facilitando procesos complejos donde la auto-regulación y el bienestar favorecerían el desarrollo completo de la persona (Deci y Ryan, 2000). Así, aunque la literatura previa subraya los beneficios de los líderes servidores para facilitar el bienestar de los trabajadores en el contexto laboral (p.ej. satisfacción laboral, compromiso, etc.) (Parris y Peachey, 2012), la presente investigación amplía el conocimiento sobre el papel del liderazgo en el bienestar y el crecimiento personal de los empleados más allá del trabajo. Además, como hemos visto la repercusión de estos procesos revierte positivamente en la consecución de metas laborales, señalando que el liderazgo de servicio favorece que la organización pueda tener más rendimiento. Este hecho señala que la efectividad de estos líderes radica en el enfoque primordial en el desarrollo completo de los trabajadores como se plantea teóricamente (v.g. Greenleaf, 1977; Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003) mostrando la importancia de seguir estudiando la interacción líder-empleado para comprender las complejas relaciones entre el contexto laboral y el conjunto de la vida.

5.7. EL EFECTO MODERADOR DE LA PERSONALIDAD PROACTIVA

Un aspecto añadido del presente estudio es profundizar en las características individuales de los trabajadores que hacen que el liderazgo de servicio sea especialmente útil para algunas personas. De hecho, investigaciones previas han reseñado la necesidad de conocer las características de los trabajadores en relación a la eficacia de este estilo de liderazgo (Donia y cols., 2016; Newman y cols., 2015; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne y Cao, 2015) (Donia y cols., 2016; Newman y cols., 2015).

Concretamente, se observa que las personas más proactivas perciben mayor sentido vital los días en que sus jefes se comportan como líderes servidores que las personas menos proactivas. Estos resultados refuerzan el papel moderador de la proactividad en los efectos positivos del liderazgo de servicio (Newman y cols., 2015) ampliando el papel moderador de la misma en relación a la generación de sentido. De este modo, las personas con personalidad proactiva se muestran capaces de sacar más partido del contexto que facilitan los líderes servidores diariamente para la generación de sentido. Así, la personalidad proactiva se desarrolla con efectividad en el contexto promovido por los líderes servidores, donde se premia la autonomía y la iniciativa personal para el alcance de metas (van Dierendonck, 2011). Es más, dado que la generación de sentido va ligada en sí a procesos activos (Baumeister y Vohs, 2002), las personas proactivas pueden ver incrementada la posibilidad de hacer congruente su conducta con sus valores y metas personales hacia el sentido gracias a los líderes servidores.

Además de lo expuesto, se observa que aunque las personas proactivas se ven beneficiadas en mayor medida por el liderazgo de servicio en la generación de sentido, todos los trabajadores sacan partido de los líderes servidores independientemente de sus niveles de proactividad. Dado que este estilo de liderazgo promueve en sí mismo los

comportamientos proactivos (Bande, Fernández, Varela-Neira, y Otero-Neira, 2016), estos resultados podrían indicar que los líderes servidores empoderan a sus trabajadores para que muestren iniciativa personal en la generación de sentido.

5.8. IMPLICACIONES PRÁCTICAS

En primer lugar, la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio destaca los beneficios que estos líderes pueden tener en las organizaciones. Por ello, se recomienda el desarrollo de planes de intervención que fomenten los comportamientos y valores relacionados con el liderazgo de servicio para promocionar el bienestar de los trabajadores y su productividad.

En concreto, esta tesis señala dos contextos en los que el liderazgo de servicio puede ser especialmente útil. Al primer respecto, se ha observado que el liderazgo de servicio es útil a nivel de diario en la promoción del alcance de metas. Por ello, sería favorable que los líderes prestasen atención a su comportamiento diario y los factores que contribuyen a que mantengan comportamientos ligados al liderazgo de servicio.

Al segundo respecto, se ha observado que el liderazgo de servicio es especialmente útil en situaciones de crisis. De este modo, ante periodos convulsos o inestables donde las crisis puedan aparecer, promover que los supervisores se desarrollen como líderes servidores puede ser un factor preventivo frente a la aparición de comportamientos contraproducentes por parte de los trabajadores. Es más, los datos observados con respecto al liderazgo transformacional señalan que, ante un evento de crisis, sería recomendable que los supervisores cambien el estilo de liderazgo hacia el servicio para limitar los efectos nocivos de dicha crisis. Por ello, para el manejo de crisis en general, promover habilidades en los líderes como líderes de servicio puede facilitar el éxito en la gestión de estos eventos inesperados.

En segundo lugar, en esta tesis se enfatiza la generación de sentido como mecanismo clave en la auto-regulación efectiva de los empleados, y cómo fomentar la satisfacción de

las necesidades psicológicas puede ayudar en este proceso. De este modo, se enfatiza como cada vez es más importante cambiar las organizaciones y desarrollarlas centradas en el trabajador para que estas sean saludables y productivas (Avolio y cols, 2009; Wong y cols., 2017). Es más, el papel del sentido en este proceso destaca que este desarrollo debe involucrar que las personas entiendan el valor de su trabajo y cómo este contribuye positivamente a sus vidas para guiar a los trabajadores a dar lo mejor de sí mismos (Wong y cols., 2017).

En tercer lugar, las diferencias culturales en el liderazgo de servicio señalan que países como Argentina, con valores culturales más igualitarios, podrían encajar mejor con las características de los líderes de servicio. Estos datos ponen de relieve la importancia de prestar atención a los valores culturales presentes en cada país para entender qué aspectos del liderazgo de servicio pueden ser mejor aceptados en cada cultura para su implementación en las organizaciones. Además, dada la creciente multiculturalidad en las empresas, los presentes datos pueden dar una guía a los supervisores sobre las posibilidades de adaptación de sus comportamientos como servidores a personas provenientes de diferentes países (van Dierendonck y cols., 2017).

En tercer lugar, el primer estudio de la tesis ha permitido el desarrollo de la escala SLS en su versión en español por lo que se proporciona un instrumento válido y fiable que recoge el contenido total del constructo de liderazgo de servicio. Por ello, puede ser de especial utilidad en el desarrollo de estudios sobre este liderazgo en culturas de habla hispana donde se atienda al liderazgo de servicio en general o al funcionamiento diferencial de dimensiones concretas. Además, esta utilidad puede extenderse al terreno de las organizaciones para evaluar el estilo de los líderes de la empresa o los efectos de posibles intervenciones en liderazgo.

En cuarto lugar, además del desarrollo de la escala, esta tesis proporciona herramientas metodológicas para el estudio del (1) alcance de metas a nivel diario, y (2) los contextos de crisis organizacional. En relación al *alcance de metas*, en el segundo estudio de la tesis se proporciona un instrumento de medida que adapta la metodología de Emmons (1999) para evaluar la consecución de objetivos. De este modo, se provee de una importante herramienta para el estudio en esta área, y también para el desarrollo de intervenciones en la empresa dirigidas a facilitar los procesos de auto-regulación a metas de los empleados. Por último, en relación a los contextos de crisis organizacional, la presente investigación provee de un marco metodológico donde se facilitan escenarios útiles donde manipular distintos factores de los eventos de crisis que pueden favorecer la continuación de la investigación en un área en la que los estudios en el entorno real resultan complicados (Zhang y cols., 2012).

5.9. LIMITACIONES Y FUTURAS LÍNEAS DE INVESTIGACIÓN

El presente trabajo no está ausente de limitaciones que señalan puntos mejorables en futuras investigaciones. A continuación se señalan las limitaciones más relevantes de esta tesis:

1) En el primer estudio se señalan diferencias entre países en las puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio y su relación con los valores culturales de cada nación. Si bien estos resultados son uno de los primeros intentos en la investigación de diferencias culturales en el liderazgo de servicio, para asegurar que las diferencias entre países están debidas a factores culturales, sería adecuado llevar a cabo más investigación donde se controle y equipare por país, por ejemplo, los sectores laborales o niveles socioeconómicos representados en las muestras.

2) Otra limitación en relación a la muestra es la descrita en el segundo estudio debido al reclutamiento a través de redes de conveniencia. Como se destaca en ese estudio,

pese a que este procedimiento pudiera afectar a la representatividad, permite alcanzar un mayor número de personas (v.g. Atkinson y Flint, 2001) y, en nuestro caso, se observa una gran heterogeneidad de sectores que permiten dar fuerza a la posibilidad de generalizar los resultados.

3) El uso de medidas de auto-informe también se destaca como una limitación por el sesgo que la propia auto-evaluación puede tener en las respuestas y la posibilidad de que aparezca varianza común de método (Podsakoff y cols., 2003). En este sentido, los estudios experimentales combinan las manipulaciones experimentales con las medidas de auto-informe lo que permite establecer claramente los procesos causales y restar influencia a dichos sesgos en la explicación de las relaciones encontradas (Aronson y cols., 1998). Por ello, esta limitación podría influir más en el estudio de diario donde todas las variables son medidas mediante instrumentos de auto-informe. A pesar de ello, cabe destacar que se llevaron a cabo distintas estrategias para reducir el impacto de la posible varianza de método. En primer lugar, el diseño del estudio de diario permitió situar en distinto momento temporal las variables independientes y dependientes reduciendo la posibilidad de factores comunes que expliquen los resultados (Podsakoff y cols., 2003). En segundo lugar, el enfoque en el nivel intra-individual de las hipótesis del estudio de diario permite aislar la varianza inter-individual relacionada con sesgos o variables individuales en el segundo nivel lo que permite afirmar con mayor determinación la validez de los resultados encontrados (Binnewies y Wörlein, 2011). En tercer lugar, la variable dependiente del estudio, el alcance de metas, se recoge mediante la metodología adaptada de Emmons (2003) facilitando un instrumento diferencial de medida que podría reducir la influencia de estos sesgos (Podsakoff y cols., 2003). A pesar de que todo lo expuesto describe las razones por las que los datos recabados son válidos, es indudable que el desarrollo de medidas objetivas que permitieran recoger el comportamiento de los trabajadores reduciría

la posible influencia que ciertos sesgos (ej. deseabilidad) o variables no recogidas en el estudio (ej. afecto) pueden tener en las respuestas. Además, cabe añadir que no solo sería interesante en futuras investigaciones el uso de medidas objetivas sino la evaluación de las variables de interés por parte de otros actores organizacionales como el propio jefe, los compañeros o los clientes.

4) El estudio aquí planteado destaca que los líderes son efectivos en contextos de crisis. En este sentido, los estudios experimentales han permitido investigar las relaciones entre las variables de interés en relación a eventos que por su naturaleza imprevisible limitan la posibilidad de realizar estudios sobre ellos en el contexto real (Zhang y cols., 2012). De hecho, muchos estudios en esta área se han limitado a investigaciones retrospectivas sobre los procesos de crisis (v.g. Arthaud-Day y cols., 2006). Por ello, el reto actual en el estudio de las crisis es la planificación de investigaciones a nivel longitudinal que estudien las relaciones comprobadas a nivel experimental y permitan aumentar la validez ecológica de los resultados.

5) Por último, cabe destacar que se han analizado los efectos y mecanismos del liderazgo de servicio de manera parcializada en distintos estudios. En este sentido, aunque los resultados nos dan información relevante sobre la efectividad de este liderazgo, sería importante profundizar en relaciones entre las variables de estudio que no han sido abordados en esta tesis. A este respecto, sería interesante el estudio conjunto del sentido de la vida y el sentido del trabajo. En esta línea de investigación, Steger y Dik (2009) han observado que ambos procesos se encuentran interrelacionados. Estos autores resaltan que un aspecto importante para la generación de sentido es profundizar en esta interrelación para conocer cómo intervenir en su promoción. Por ello, futuros estudios podrían dirigirse a entender cómo el liderazgo de servicio impacta de manera diferencial en ambos aspectos del sentido. Es más, aunque la investigación en esta tesis se ha limitado a la presencia de

sentido, el estudio en la generación de sentido podría continuar atendiendo al contenido del sentido y los valores que lo guían. Complementariamente, si bien se ha observado la relación entre la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas y el sentido del trabajo, sería importante conocer si el mismo mecanismo estriba en la generación del sentido vital y fuera de contextos como las crisis.

5.10. CONCLUSIÓN GENERAL DE LA TESIS

En el presente trabajo se ha abordado el estudio del liderazgo de servicio en primer lugar a través de la validación de la escala SLS a nivel transcultural en España, México y Argentina para disponer de un cuestionario multidimensional que permita medir el constructo con garantías psicométricas. En segundo lugar, se ha abordado el estudio de la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio mediante dos estudios, el primero de ellos un estudio de diario y el segundo un estudio que incluye tres experimentos. De este modo, la investigación en esta tesis aporta un valor novedoso al campo del liderazgo de servicio al diseñar estudios en base a diferentes metodologías desde las que no se conoce hasta el momento estudios (ej. estudio de diario) o desde las que el número de estudios desarrollados son escasos (ej. estudio experimental; como excepción véase van Dierendonck y cols., 2014). En relación al estudio de diario, la investigación desarrollada arroja información novedosa sobre la relación líder-trabajador al profundizar en las percepciones a nivel intra-sujeto frente al enfoque tradicional basado en las diferencias entre los trabajadores (Dalal, Bhave, y Fiset, 2014). Al mismo tiempo, los estudios experimentales han permitido establecer relaciones causales entre el liderazgo de servicio y la conducta de los trabajadores.

A continuación se exponen las conclusiones que se derivan de la tesis doctoral en relación a los objetivos de la tesis:

Objetivo 1: Profundizar en el constructo de liderazgo de servicio y validar la Escala de Liderazgo de Servicio (SLS) transculturalmente en España, México y Argentina.

1.a. En relación a la hipótesis sobre la estructura factorial de la escala SLS en español, los datos apoyan que la estructura propuesta de ocho dimensiones (Empoderamiento, Responsabilizar, Coraje, Aceptación interpersonal, Ceder méritos, Humildad, Autenticidad, y Responsabilidad social) es válida en las muestras de México, Argentina y España.

1.b. Se confirma que la escala SLS es métrica y conceptualmente equivalente en su versión en español en los tres países.

1.c. Los datos apoyan la hipótesis de que las puntuaciones en liderazgo de servicio medido con la escala SLS son similares entre las muestras de México y España y difieren con respecto a las puntuaciones de la muestra argentina.

1.d. Se rechaza parcialmente la hipótesis de que Argentina, España y México presenten menores puntuaciones en la escala SLS que Reino Unido y Los Países Bajos. Así, se confirma que España y México muestran menores puntuaciones que los Países Bajos, pero iguales que Reino Unido. Destaca la puntuación de Argentina que muestra una puntuación significativamente más alta que cualquiera de los países con los que se compara.

1.e. Los datos apoyan la hipótesis de que las personas que indican mayores niveles de liderazgo de servicio al evaluar a su líder también informan de mayores niveles de identificación organizacional.

1.f. Al mismo tiempo, los resultados sostienen que aquellas personas que puntúan a su líder con mayores niveles en liderazgo de servicio, refieren menores niveles de estrés de rol, incluyendo la ambigüedad y el conflicto de rol.

2) Estudiar la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio en los procesos de autorregulación de los empleados atendiendo a la promoción del alcance de metas y la prevención de los comportamientos laborales contraproducentes.

2.a. Los resultados del estudio de diario sostienen la hipótesis de que los trabajadores tienden a alcanzar sus metas en mayor medida las jornadas laborales en las que el día anterior percibieron a su jefe en mayor medida como un líder servidor. Sin embargo, los resultados rechazan una mediación lineal del liderazgo de servicio al alcance de metas a través del sentido y de este a la vitalidad. Así, se observa que los líderes de servicio son útiles en la consecución de metas a través de dos procesos paralelos, a través de la vitalidad y del sentido de la vida de manera independiente.

2.b. Los datos de los dos primeros experimentos corroboran la hipótesis de que el liderazgo de servicio se relaciona con menos comportamientos laborales contraproducentes que el liderazgo transformacional en contextos de crisis.

2.c. Los datos sostienen la hipótesis de que la estrategia de mantener el estilo de liderazgo tras una crisis fomenta mayores niveles de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes cuando las personas trabajan bajo el liderazgo transformacional que frente al liderazgo de servicio.

2.d. Se mantiene la hipótesis de que las personas que trabajan con supervisores con alto liderazgo de servicio muestran menos niveles de comportamientos contraproducentes que las personas con supervisores con bajo liderazgo de servicio. Complementariamente se corroboran las hipótesis de que este efecto se da mediado por la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas y el sentido del trabajo. Es más, se mantiene la hipótesis de existe un tercer proceso que explica que la satisfacción de las necesidades básicas media también parcialmente el proceso al promover el sentido del trabajo.

3) Estudiar el papel del liderazgo de servicio en la generación de sentido.

Específicamente, se espera dar luz a la promoción de sentido de la vida y del sentido del trabajo por parte de estos líderes.

3.a. Los datos sostienen la hipótesis de que los días en los que el líder muestra más comportamientos del liderazgo de servicio, el trabajador muestra mayores niveles de sentido de la vida al final del día.

3.b. Se confirma la hipótesis de que mayores niveles de sentido del trabajo se relacionan con menores niveles de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes.

3.c. Los datos sostienen la hipótesis de que las personas que trabajan con supervisores con alto liderazgo de servicio muestran más sentido del trabajo que aquellas con supervisores con bajo liderazgo de servicio.

4) Estudiar las necesidades psicológicas como mecanismos explicativos de la generación de sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

4.1. Se mantiene la hipótesis de que mayores niveles de satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas básicas se relacionan con menores niveles de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes.

4.2. Se confirma la hipótesis de que las personas que trabajan con supervisores con alto liderazgo de servicio muestran mayor satisfacción de sus necesidades psicológicas básicas que aquellas con supervisores con bajo liderazgo de servicio.

4.3. Los datos sostienen que las personas con mayores niveles de satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas básicas tienen mayores niveles de sentido del trabajo.

4.4. Los datos también confirman que la satisfacción de las necesidades psicológicas básicas media la relación entre el liderazgo de servicio y el sentido del trabajo. Específicamente, se confirma la hipótesis de que las personas que trabajan con

supervisores con alto liderazgo de servicio muestran mayores niveles de sentido del trabajo mediado de manera parcial por una mayor satisfacción de sus necesidades psicológicas básicas que aquellas personas con supervisores con bajo liderazgo de servicio.

5) Estudiar la vitalidad como recurso de auto-regulación facilitado por la generación de sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

5.a. Se mantiene la hipótesis de que las noches en la que la persona tiene mayores niveles de sentido de la vida, refiere al despertar por la mañana mayores niveles de vitalidad.

5.b. Los datos confirman la hipótesis de que los días en que los trabajadores muestran más vitalidad por la mañana alcanzan mejor sus metas esa jornada laboral.

5.c. Se confirma que mayores niveles de liderazgo de servicio el día anterior tienen un efecto indirecto positivo en el alcance de metas esa jornada a través de mayores niveles de vitalidad por la mañana.

6) Estudiar el papel moderador de la proactividad en la generación del sentido de los trabajadores promovida por el liderazgo de servicio.

6.1. Los datos corroboran el papel moderador de la personalidad proactiva en la relación a nivel intra-sujeto el liderazgo de sentido evaluado después del trabajo y el sentido de la vida por la noche. Específicamente, la relación entre el liderazgo de servicio y el sentido vital es más fuerte para personas con mayores niveles de proactividad.

7) Estudiar la efectividad de los líderes de servicio en contextos generales y en contextos de crisis.

7.1. Los datos confirman que los niveles del liderazgo, transformacional y de servicio, son menores después que antes de la crisis.

7.2. Se rechaza la hipótesis de que aquellas personas que perciben al líder antes de la crisis muestren más comportamientos laborales contraproducentes que las personas que lo perciben después de la crisis.

7.3. Se rechaza la hipótesis de que la situación de crisis definida a partir de las consecuencias organizacionales esté relacionada con más comportamientos laborales contraproducentes que la condición sin crisis.

7.4. Se confirma la hipótesis de que un alto liderazgo de servicio se relaciona con menores niveles de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes en condiciones de crisis y no-crisis.

7.5. Se mantiene que las situaciones problemáticas en las que la organización muestra una conducta no-ética se relacionan con mayores niveles de comportamientos contraproducentes que los problemas en los que la organización muestra una conducta ética.

7.6. El conjunto de estos resultados de la tesis corrobora la efectividad del liderazgo de servicio en situaciones generales y en contextos de crisis organizacional. Así, los resultados de la validez concurrente de la escala y del estudio de diario sostienen la efectividad de los líderes servidores en la promoción del bienestar y el alcance de metas de los empleados en contextos generales. Al mismo tiempo, los resultados de los tres estudios experimentales sostiene la eficacia de este liderazgo en la prevención de comportamientos laborales contraproducentes en contextos de crisis.

En resumen, a partir de las investigaciones realizadas dentro de esta tesis doctoral se puede concluir que el liderazgo de servicio medido a través de la SLS en español constituye una medida válida y fiable para España, México y Argentina. Además, el estudio empírico sobre su valor en el contexto organizacional muestra que el liderazgo de servicio es un liderazgo capaz de favorecer que los trabajadores se auto-regulen en el alcance de metas y

la inhibición de comportamientos disruptivos contra la organización. Específicamente, la eficacia de estos líderes parece estar ligada en gran medida a su capacidad de satisfacer las necesidades psicológicas de sus empleados y de crear un contexto adecuado para la generación de sentido, vital y del trabajo. De este modo, el interés del liderazgo de servicio en los trabajadores y su marco ético permite que estos motiven su conducta hacia aquello que valoran, aportando efectividad en la auto-regulación hacia comportamientos que impactan en la productividad de la empresa. De este modo, el liderazgo de servicio contribuye al avance de las organizaciones hacia un desarrollo ético y saludable donde el trabajador y su individualidad son la clave para el éxito de la empresa.

Referencias

- Aguinis, H., Gottfredson, R. K., & Culpepper, S. A. (2013). Best-practice recommendations for estimating cross-Level interaction effects using multilevel modeling. *Journal of Management*, 39(6), 1490–1528.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313478188>
- Alas, R. (2006). Ethics in countries with different cultural dimensions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 69(3), 237–247. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9088-3>
- Allen, T. D., & Kiburz, K. M. (2012). Trait mindfulness and work-family balance among working parents: The mediating effects of vitality and sleep quality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(2), 372–379. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2011.09.002>
- Andresen, M., & Margenfeld, J. (2015). International relocation mobility readiness and its antecedents. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 30(3), 234–249.
<http://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-11-2012-0362>
- Aronson, E., Wilson, T. D., & Brewer, M. B. (1998). Experimentation in social psychology. In D. T. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *The Handbook of social psychology* (4th ed., Vol. 1, pp. 99–142). New York, NY (US): McGraw-Hill.
- Arthaud-Day, M. L., Certo, S. T., Dalton, C. M., & Dalton, D. R. (2006). A changing of the guard: Executive and director turnover following corporate financial restatements. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(6), 1119–1136.
<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2006.23478165>
- Asag-Gau, L., & Dierendonck, D. Van. (2011). The impact of servant leadership on

- organisational commitment among the highly talented: The role of challenging work conditions and psychological empowerment. *European J. of International Management*, 5(5), 463. <http://doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2011.042174>
- Atkinson, R., & Flint, J. (2001). *Accessing hidden and hard-to-reach populations: Snowball research strategies* (Social Res). University of Surrey Department of Sociology, Guildford.
- Avolio, B. J. (1999). *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Avolio, B. J., Walumbwa, F. O., & Weber, T. J. (2009). Leadership: Current Theories, Research, and Future Directions. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 60(1), 421–449. <http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.60.110707.163621>
- Baard, P. P., Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2004). Intrinsic need satisfaction: A motivational basis of performance and well-Being in two work settings. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(10), 2045–2068.
- Bande, B., Fernández, P., Varela-Neira, C., & Otero-Neira, C. (2016). Exploring the relationship among servant leadership, intrinsic motivation and performance in an industrial sales setting. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 31(2), 219–231. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JBIM-03-2014-0046>
- Barbuto, J. E., & Wheeler, D. W. (2006). Scale Development and Construct Clarification of Servant Leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(3), 300–326. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601106287091>
- Bass, B. M. (1995). Theory of transformational leadership redux. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(4), 463–478. [http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(95\)90021-7](http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90021-7)

- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103–108.
- Bauer, D. J. (2003). Estimating multilevel linear models as structural equation models. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, 28(2), 135–167.
- Bauer, D. J., Preacher, K. J., & Gil, K. M. (2006). Conceptualizing and testing random indirect effects and moderated mediation in multilevel models: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, 11(2), 142–63.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.11.2.142>
- Baumeister. (1991). *The meanings of life*. New York, NY: Guildford.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2002). The pursuit of meaningfulness in life. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. López (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 608–618). New York, NY (US): Oxford University Press.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Vohs, K. D. (2007). Self-regulation, ego depletion, and motivation. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 1(1), 115–128.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00001.x>
- Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., & Tice, D. M. (2007). The strength model of self-control. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 16(6), 351–355.
- Beaton, D. E., Bombardier, C., Guillemin, F., & Ferraz, M. B. (2000). Guidelines for the Process of Cross-Cultural Adaptation of Self-Report Measures. *SPINE*, 25(24), 3186–3191.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace

- deviance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(3), 349–360.
<http://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.3.349>
- Binnewies, C., & Wörnlein, S. C. (2011). What makes a creative day? A diary study on the interplay between affect, job stressors, and job control. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(4), 589–607. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.731>
- Bobbio, A., Van Dierendonck, D., & Manganelli, A. M. (2012). Servant leadership in Italy and its relation to organizational variables. *Leadership*, 8(3), 229–243.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715012441176>
- Boin, A., Hart, P. T., McConnell, A., & Preston, T. (2010). Leadership style, crisis response and blame management: The case of hurricane katrina. *Public Administration*, 88(3), 706–723. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9299.2010.01836.x>
- Bono, J. E., & Judge, T. A. (2014). Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leaders. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 46(5), 554–571.
- Breevaart, K., Bakker, A., Hetland, J., Demerouti, E., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2014). Daily transactional and transformational leadership and daily employee engagement. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(1), 138–157.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12041>
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Carnevale, P., & De Dreu, C. (2005). Laboratory Experiments on Negotiation and Social Conflict. *International Negotiation*, 10(1), 51–66.
<http://doi.org/10.1163/1571806054741065>

- Carter, D., & Baghurst, T. (2014). The influence of servant leadership on restaurant employee engagement. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 124(3), 453–464.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-013-1882-0>
- Chen, J., & Silverthorne, C. (2005). Leadership effectiveness, leadership style and employee readiness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(4), 280–288. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437730510600652>
- Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating Goodness-of-Fit Indexes for Testing Measurement Invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 9(2), 233–255. <http://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902>
- Chiniara, M., & Bentein, K. (2016). Linking servant leadership to individual performance: Differentiating the mediating role of autonomy, competence and relatedness need satisfaction. *Leadership Quarterly*, 27(1), 124–141.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.08.004>
- Church, A. T., Katigbak, M. S., Locke, K. D., Zhang, H., Shen, J., de Jesus Vargas-Flores, J., ... Ching, C. M. (2012). Need Satisfaction and Well-Being: Testing Self-Determination Theory in Eight Cultures. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 44(4), 507–534. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022112466590>
- Claeys, A. S., Cauberghe, V., & Vyncke, P. (2010). Restoring reputations in times of crisis: An experimental study of the Situational Crisis Communication Theory and the moderating effects of locus of control. *Public Relations Review*, 36(3), 256–262.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2010.05.004>
- Coombs, W. T. (2007). Attribution Theory as a guide for post-crisis communication research. *Public Relations Review*, 33(2), 135–139.

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2006.11.016>

Coombs, W. T. (2007). Protecting Organization Reputations During a Crisis: The Development and Application of Situational Crisis Communication Theory.

Corporate Reputation Review, 10(3), 163–176.

<http://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1550049>

Coombs, W. T. (2010). Parameters for Crisis Communication. In W. T. Coombs & S. J.

Holladay (Eds.), *The Handbook of Crisis Communication* (pp. 17–53). Oxford (UK):

Wiley Blackwell. <http://doi.org/10.1002/9781444314885.ch1>

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. (2001). An Extended Examination of the Crisis Situations:

A Fusion of the Relational Management and Symbolic Approaches. *Journal of Public*

Relations Research, 13(4), 321–340. http://doi.org/10.1207/S1532754XJPRR1304_03

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2002). Helping Crisis Managers Protect Reputational

Assets: Initial Tests of the Situational Crisis Communication Theory. *Management*

Communication Quarterly, 16(2), 165–186. <http://doi.org/10.1177/089331802237233>

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2006). Unpacking the halo effect: reputation and crisis management. *Journal of Communication Management*, 10(2), 123–137.

<http://doi.org/10.1108/13632540610664698>

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2007). The negative communication dynamic:

Exploring the impact of stakeholder affect on behavioral intentions. *Journal of*

Communication Management, 11(4), 300–312.

<http://doi.org/10.1108/13632540710843913>

Coombs, W. T., & Holladay, S. J. (2010). *The handbook of crisis communication*. (W. T.

Coombs & S. J. Holladay, Eds.). Oxford (UK): Wiley-Blackwell. Retrieved from

<http://www.amazon.com/Handbook-Crisis-Communication-Handbooks-Media/dp/1405194413>

Correia de Sousa, M. J., & van Dierendonck, D. (2014). Servant leadership and engagement in a merge process under high uncertainty. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 27(6), 877–899. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JOCM-07-2013-0133>

Correia de Sousa, M., & van Dierendonck, D. (2010). Knowledge workers, servant leadership and the search for meaning in knowledge-driven organizations. *On the Horizon*, 18(3), 230–239. <http://doi.org/10.1108/10748121011072681>

Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 435–462. <http://doi.org/10.1177/014920630002600304>

Dalal, R. S., Bhawe, D. P., & Fiset, J. (2014). *Within-Person Variability in Job Performance: A Theoretical Review and Research Agenda*. *Journal of Management* (Vol. 40). <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314532691>

Dannhauser, Z., & Boshoff, A. B. (2007). Structural Equivalence of the Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) Servant Leadership Questionnaire on North American and South African Samples. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 2(2), 148–168.

Davis, K. M., & Gardner, W. L. (2012). Charisma under crisis revisited: Presidential leadership, perceived leader effectiveness, and contextual influences. *Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 918–933. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.06.001>

de Klerk, J. J. (2005). Spirituality, meaning in life, and work wellness: a research agenda. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 13(1), 64–68. <http://doi.org/10.1108/eb028998>

- de Mooij, M., & Hofstede, G. (2010). The hofstede model: Applications to global branding and advertising strategy and research. *International Journal of Advertising*, 29(1).
<http://doi.org/10.2501/S026504870920104X>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “What” and “Why” of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227–268. http://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01
- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Gagne, M., Leone, D. R., Usunov, J., & Kornazheva, B. P. (2001). Need Satisfaction, Motivation, and Well-Being in the Work Organizations of a Former Eastern Bloc Country: A Cross-Cultural Study of Self-Determination. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 27, 930–942.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0146167201278002>
- Dennis, R. S., & Bocarnea, M. (2005). Development of the servant leadership assessment instrument. *Leadership Organization Development Journal*, 26(8), 600–615.
Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/621619385?accountid=14478>
- Dennis, R., & Winston, B. E. (2003). A factor analysis of Page and Wong’s servant leadership instrument. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(8), 455–459. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437730310505885>
- Dent, E. B., Higgins, M. E., & Wharff, D. M. (2005). Spirituality and leadership: An empirical review of definitions, distinctions, and embedded assumptions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(5), 625–653. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.07.002>
- Dickson, M. W., Castaño, N., Magomaeva, A., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2012). Conceptualizing leadership across cultures. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 483–492. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.002>

- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin*, 125(2), 276–302.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.125.2.276>
- Donia, M. B. L., Raja, U., Panaccio, A., & Wang, Z. (2016). Servant leadership and employee outcomes: The moderating role of subordinates' motives. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 25(5), 722–734.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/1359432X.2016.1149471>
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 504–518. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.004>
- Drobnic, S., Beham, B., & Präg, P. (2010). Good Job, Good Life? Working Conditions and Quality of Life in Europe. *Social Indicators Research*, 99(2), 205–225.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s11205-010-9586-7>
- Dunlop, P. D., & Lee, K. (2004). Workplace deviance, organizational citizenship behavior, and business unit performance: The bad apples do spoil the whole barrel. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(1), 67–80. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.243>
- Eakman, A. M. (2014). A Prospective Longitudinal Study Testing Relationships Between Meaningful Activities, Basic Psychological Needs Fulfillment, and Meaning in Life. *OTJR: Occupation, Participation, Health*, 34(2), 93–105.
<http://doi.org/10.3928/15394492-20140211-01>
- Ehrhart, M. G. (2004). Leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(1), 61–94.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2004.tb02484.x>

- Emmons, R. A. (1999). *The psychology of ultimate concerns: Motivation and spirituality in personality*. New York, NY: Guildford Press.
- Emmons, R. A. (2003). Personal goals, life meaning, and virtue: wellsprings of a positive life. In C. L. M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive psychology and the life well-lived*. (pp. 105–128). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/10594-005>
- Ferch, S. R. (2005). Servant-leadership, forgiveness, and social justice. *International Journal of Servant-Leadership*, 1, 97–113.
- Ferdig, M. A. (2007). Sustainability leadership: Co-creating a sustainable future. *Journal of Change Management*, 7(1), 25–35.
- Frankl, V. E. (1992). *Man's search for meaning* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2000). Cultivating positive emotions to optimize health and well-being. *Prevention & Treatment*, 3(1). <http://doi.org/10.1037/1522-3736.3.1.31a>
- Fuller, B., & Marler, L. E. (2009). Change driven by nature: A meta-analytic review of the proactive personality literature. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75(3), 329–345.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2009.05.008>
- Gabriel, Y. (2015). The caring leader - What followers expect of their leaders and why? *Leadership*, 11(3), 316–334. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1742715014532482>
- Gagné, M., Ryan, R. M., & Bargmann, K. (2003). Autonomy Support and Need Satisfaction in the Motivation and Well-Being of Gymnasts. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 15, 372–390. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10413200390238031>
- Garrosa, E., Blanco-Donoso, L. M., Carmona-Cobo, I., & Moreno-Jiménez, B. (2017).

- How do Curiosity, Meaning in Life, and Search for Meaning Predict College Students' Daily Emotional Exhaustion and Engagement? *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 18(1), 17–40. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-016-9715-3>
- George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and Leadership: The Role of Emotional Intelligence. *Human Relations*, 53(8), 1027–1055. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0018726700538001>
- Gerstein, M., Hertz, S., & Friedman, H. H. (2016). What kind of leaders are needed for today's accounting firms? *Journal of Accounting and Finance*, 16(5), 60–72.
- Gevers, J. M. P., & Demerouti, E. (2013). How supervisors' reminders relate to subordinates' absorption and creativity. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 28(6), 677–698. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JPM-09-2011-0055>
- Gillet, N., Fouquereau, E., Forest, J., Brunault, P., & Colombat, P. (2012). The Impact of Organizational Factors on Psychological Needs and Their Relations with Well-Being. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 27(4), 437–450. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-011-9253-2>
- Graves, L. M., & Luciano, M. M. (2013). Self-determination at work: Understanding the role of leader-member exchange. *Motivation and Emotion*, 37(3), 518–536. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-012-9336-z>
- Green, A. S., Rafaeli, E., Bolger, N., Shrout, P. E., & Reis, H. T. (2006). Paper or plastic? Data equivalence in paper and electronic diaries. *Psychological Methods*, 11(1), 87–105. <http://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.11.1.87>
- Greenleaf, R. K. (1977). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness*. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.

- Greguras, G. J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2010). Why does proactive personality predict employee life satisfaction and work. *Personnel Psychology*, 63(3), 539–560.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01180.x>
- Halpin, A., & Croft, D. . (1966). Organizational climate of schools. In A. Halpin (Ed.), *Theory and research in administration* (pp. 131–249). New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
- Hanges, P. J., Lord, R. G., & Dickson, M. W. (2000). An Information-processing Perspective on Leadership and Culture : A Case for Connectionist Architecture, 49(1).
- Harter, S. . (2002). Authenticity. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 382–394). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *An introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: The Guildford Press.
- Heck, R. H., & Thomas, S. L. (2015). *An introduction to multilevel modeling techniques. MLM and SEM approaches using Mplus* (3rd editio). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Henderson, L. W., Knight, T., & Richardson, B. (2013). An exploration of the well-being benefits of hedonic and eudaimonic behaviour. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(4), 322–336. <http://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2013.803596>
- Hoch, J. E., Bommer, W. H., Dulebohn, J. H., & Wu, D. (2016). Do Ethical, Authentic, and Servant Leadership Explain Variance Above and Beyond Transformational Leadership? A Meta-Analysis. *Journal of Management*, XX(X), 1–29.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316665461>
- Hofstede, G. (2009). Hofstede cultural dimensions – Spain. Available at www.geert-hofstede.com/hofstede_spain.shtml.

- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks (CA): Sage Publications.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1–55. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Huang, J., Li, W., Qiu, C., Yim, F. H., & Wan, J. (2016). The impact of CEO servant leadership on firm performance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(5), 1–49. <http://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-08-2014-0388>
- Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D., & Morgeson, F. P. (2007). Integrating motivational, social, and contextual work design features: a meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(5), 1332–1356. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.5.1332>
- Hunt, J. G., Boal, K. B., & Dodge, G. E. (1999). The effects of visionary and crisis-responsive charisma on followers. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 423–448. [http://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(99\)00027-2](http://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00027-2)
- Hunter, E. M., Neubert, M. J., Perry, S. J., Witt, L. a., Penney, L. M., & Weinberger, E. (2013). Servant leaders inspire servant followers: Antecedents and outcomes for employees and the organization. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(2), 316–331. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.12.001>
- Institute for Crisis Management. (2017). ICM annual crisis report 2016.
- Irving, J. A., & Berndt, J. (2017). Leader Purposefulness within Servant Leadership:

Examining the Effect of Servant Leadership , and Leader Purposefulness in a Large U . S . Healthcare Organization. *Administrative Sciences*.

<http://doi.org/10.3390/admsci7020010>

James, E. H., Wooten, L. P., & Dushek, K. (2011). Crisis Management: Informing a New Leadership Research Agenda. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5(1), 455–493.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2011.589594>

Jaramillo, F., Bande, B., & Varela, J. (2015). Servant leadership and ethics: a dyadic examination of supervisor behaviors and salesperson perceptions. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 35(2), 108–124.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/08853134.2015.1010539>

Jaramillo, F., Grisaffe, D. B., Chonko, L. B., & Roberts, J. a. (2009). Examining the Impact of Servant Leadership on Salesperson's Turnover Intention. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 29(4), 351–366.

<http://doi.org/10.2753/PSS0885-3134290404>

Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., de Luque, M. S., & House, R. J. (2006). In the Eye of the Beholder: Cross Cultural Lessons in Leadership from Project GLOBE Impact of Globalization. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20, 67–91.

<http://doi.org/10.5465/AMP.2006.19873410>

Jelinek, R., & Ahearne, M. (2010). Be Careful What You Look for: The Effect of Trait Competitiveness and Long Hours on Salesperson Deviance and Whether Meaningfulness of Work Matters. *The Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 18(4), 303–321. <http://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679180401>

Jones, D. (2012). Servant Leadership's Impact on Profit, Employee Satisfaction, and

Empowerment Within the Framework of a Participative Culture in Business. *Business Studies Journal*, 4(1), 35–49. Retrieved from

<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=bth&AN=77782149&site=ehost-live&scope=site%5Chttp://0-content.ebscohost.com.wam.seals.ac.za/ContentServer.asp?T=P&P=AN&K=77782149&S=R&D=bth&EbscoContent=dGJyMNxb4kSeqLE4y9fwOLCmr06ep7JSsqe4SK%2BWxWXS&>

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Erez, A., & Locke, E. A. (2005). Core self-evaluations and job and life satisfaction: the role of self-concordance and goal attainment. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 257–68. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.2.257>

Karahanna, E., Evaristo, R., & Srite, M. (2002). Methodological Issues in MIS Cross-Cultural Research. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 10(1), 48–55. <http://doi.org/10.4018/jgim.2002010105>

Kashdan, T. B., & Steger, M. F. (2007). Curiosity and pathways to well-being and meaning in life: Traits, states, and everyday behaviors. *Motivation and Emotion*, 31(3), 159–173. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s11031-007-9068-7>

Kaul, N. (2014). Servant Leadership: A Road to High Performance. *International Journal of Management*, 1(1), 12. Retrieved from http://www.ijm-apm.com/Uploads/Media/Journal/20140928112658_ijm-v1i1-01.pdf

Kool, M., & van Dierendonck, D. (2012). Servant leadership and commitment to change, the mediating role of justice and optimism. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 25(3), 422–433. <http://doi.org/10.1108/09534811211228139>

Kruger, M. P., & Hanson, B. J. (1999). A value-based paradigm for creating truly healthy

- organizations. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(4), 302–317.
<http://doi.org/10.1108/09534819910282144>
- Kruger, M., & Zhovtobryukh, Y. (2016). Creating Truly Healthy Organizations in the Long Term. In *Strategic Leadership for Turbulent Times* (pp. 115–133). New York: Palgrave Macmillan US. http://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-40380-3_7
- Laub, J. A. (1999). *Assessing the servant organization: Development of the organizational leadership assessment (OLA) instrument*. Florida Atlantic University, Boca Raton.
- Lawrence, T. B., & Robinson, S. L. (2007). Ain't Misbehavin: Workplace Deviance as Organizational Resistance. *Journal of Management*, 33(3), 378–394.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307300816>
- Li, N., Liang, J., & Crant, J. M. (2010). The role of proactive personality in job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior: a relational perspective. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(2), 395–404. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0018079>
- Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the Vertical Dyad Linkage Model of Leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), 451–465.
<http://doi.org/10.2307/255511>
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Meuser, J. D., Hu, J., Wu, J., & Liao, C. (2015). Servant leadership: Validation of a short form of the SL-28. *The Leadership Quarterly*.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.12.002>
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(2), 161–177. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.006>

- Liden, R., Wayne, S., Liao, C., & Meuser, J. (2014). Servant leadership and serving culture: Influence on individual and unit performance. *Academy of Management*, 57(5), 1434–1452. Retrieved from <http://amj.aom.org/content/57/5/1434.short>
- Littrell, R. F., & Barba, E. C. (2013). North and South Latin America. *Journal of Management Development*, 32(6), 629–656. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-04-2013-0055>
- Locke, E. a, & Latham, G. P. (2004). What Should We Do About Motivation Theory? Six Recommendations for the Twenty First Century. *Academy of Management Review*, 29(3), 388–403. <http://doi.org/10.2307/20159050>
- Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(6), 695–706. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.165>
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 60, 541–572. <http://doi.org/DOI 10.1111/j.1744-6570.2007.00083.x>
- Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and Their Alma Mater: A Partial Test of the Reformulated Model of Organizational Identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13, 103–123. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2488176><http://about.jstor.org/terms>
- Maitlis, S., & Sonenshein, S. (2010). Sensemaking in crisis and change: Inspiration and insights from Weick (1988). *Journal of Management Studies*, 47(3), 551–580. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2010.00908.x>
- Mayer, D. M., Bardes, M., & Piccolo, R. F. (2008). Do servant-leaders help satisfy follower needs? An organizational justice perspective. *European Journal of Work and*

- Organizational Psychology*, 17(2), 180–197.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/13594320701743558>
- Mittal, R., & Dorfman, P. W. (2012). Servant leadership across cultures. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 555–570. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.009>
- Morse, N. C., & Weiss, R. S. (1955). The Function and Meaning of Work and the Job. *Americal Sociological Review*, 20(2), 191–198.
- Muraven, M., & Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Self-regulation and depletion of limited resources: Does self-control resemble a muscle? *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(2), 247–259. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.126.2.247>
- Muraven, M., Gagné, M., & Rosman, H. (2008). Helpful self-control: Autonomy support, vitality, and depletion. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44(3), 573–585. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2007.10.008>
- Muthén, B. O., & Asparouhov, T. (2011). Beyond Multilevel Regression Modeling: Multilevel Analysis in a General Latent Variable Framework. In J. Hox & J. K. Roberts (Eds.), *The Handbook of Advanced Multilevel Analysis* (pp. 15–66). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis Group.
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2012). Mplus User's Guide. Los Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén.
- Neubert, M. J., Hunter, E. M., & Tolentino, R. C. (2015). A servant leader and their stakeholders: When does organizational structure enhance a leader's influence? *Leadership Quarterly*, 27(6), 896–910. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.05.005>
- Neubert, M. J., Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D. S., Chonko, L. B., & Roberts, J. a. (2008).

- Regulatory focus as a mediator of the influence of initiating structure and servant leadership on employee behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(6), 1220–1233. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0012695>
- Neves, P., & Champion, S. (2015). Core self-evaluations and workplace deviance: The role of resources and self-regulation. *European Management Journal*, 33(5), 381–391. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2015.06.001>
- Newman, A., Schwarz, G., Cooper, B., & Sendjaya, S. (2015). How Servant Leadership Influences Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Roles of LMX, Empowerment, and Proactive Personality. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1–14. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2827-6>
- Nix, G., Ryan, R. M., Manly, J. B., & Deci, E. L. (1999). Revitalization through self-regulation: The effects of autonomous and controlled motivation on happiness and Vitality. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35(3), 266–284. <http://doi.org/10.1006/jesp.1999.1382>
- Ohly, S., & Fritz, C. (2009). Work characteristics, challenge appraisal, creativity, and proactive behavior: A multi-level study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(4), 543–565. <http://doi.org/10.1002/job.633>
- Ohly, S., Sonnentag, S., Niessen, C., & Zapf, D. (2010). Diary Studies in Organizational Research. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 9(2), 79–93. <http://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000009>
- Ouweneel, E., Le Blanc, P. M., Schaufeli, W. B., & van Wijhe, C. I. (2012). Good morning, good day: A diary study on positive emotions, hope, and work engagement. *Human Relations*, 65(9), 1129–1154. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0018726711429382>

- Page, D., & Wong, T. (2000). A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership. In S. Adjibolosoo (Ed.), *The Human factor in shaping the course of history and development*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America. Retrieved from <http://www.drpaulwong.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/Conceptual-Framework.pdf>
- Panaccio, A., Henderson, D. J., Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Cao, X. (2015). Toward an Understanding of When and Why Servant Leadership Accounts for Employee Extra-Role Behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30(4), 657–675. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9388-z>
- Park, C. L. (2010). Making sense of the meaning literature: an integrative review of meaning making and its effects on adjustment to stressful life events. *Psychological Bulletin*, 136(2), 257–301. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0018301>
- Parris, D. L., & Peachey, J. W. (2013). A systematic literature review of servant leadership theory in organizational contexts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 113(3), 377–393. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1322-6>
- Patterson, K. A. (2003). *Servant leadership: A theoretical model*. Doctoral dissertation, Regent University. ATT No. 3082719.
- Pekerti, a. a., & Sendjaya, S. (2010). Exploring servant leadership across cultures: comparative study in Australia and Indonesia. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(5), 754–780. <http://doi.org/10.1080/09585191003658920>
- Peterson, S. J., Galvin, B. M., & Lange, D. (2012). CEO Servant Leadership: Exploring Executive Characteristics and Firm Performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 65(3), 565–596. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2012.01253.x>

- Pieterse, A. N., van Knippenberg, D., Schippers, M., & Stam, D. (2010). Transformational and transactional leadership and innovative behavior: The moderating role of psychological empowerment. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 31(4), 609–623.
<http://doi.org/10.1002/job.650>
- Pircher Verdorfer, A., & Peus, C. (2014). The Measurement of Servant Leadership: Validation of a German Version of the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). *Zeitschrift Für Arbeits- Und Organisationspsychologie*, 58(1), 1–17.
- Pircher Verdorfer, A., Steinheider, B., & Burkus, D. (2015). Exploring the Socio-moral Climate in Organizations: An Empirical Examination of Determinants, Consequences, and Mediating Mechanisms. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 132(1), 233–248.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2319-0>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common Method Biases in Behavioral Research: A Critical Review of the Literature and Recommended Remedies. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107–142. [http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843\(90\)90009-7](http://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7)
- Preacher, K. J., Curran, P. J., & Bauer, D. J. (2006). Computational Tools for Probing Interactions in Multiple Linear Regression, Multilevel Modeling, and Latent Curve Analysis. *Journal of Educational and Behavioral Statistics*, 31(4), 437–448.
<http://doi.org/10.3102/10769986031004437>

Quiñones-García, C., Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., Clarke, N., & Moreno-Jiménez, B. (2013).

Desarrollo y validación trasnacional de la escala de esfuerzo emocional (EEF).

Psicothema, 25(3), 363–369. <http://doi.org/10.7334/psicothema2012.289>

Rachmawati, A. W., & Lantu, D. C. (2014). Servant Leadership Theory Development &

Measurement. In *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* (Vol. 115, pp. 387–393).

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.02.445>

Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. a. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership:

Conceptual and empirical extensions. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 329–354.

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.009>

Randler, C. (2009). Proactive people are morning people. *Journal of Applied Social*

Psychology, 39(12), 2787–2797. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2009.00549.x>

Reed, L. L., Vidaver-Cohen, D., & Colwell, S. R. (2011). A New Scale to Measure

Executive Servant Leadership: Development, Analysis, and Implications for

Research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 101(3), 415–434.

<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-010-0729-1>

Rivera, R. G., Santos, D., & Martín-Fernández, M. (2017). Spanish validation of the

Servant Leadership Short Scale for young adults and adolescents. *Revista de*

Psicología Social, 32(2), 395–423. <http://doi.org/10.1080/02134748.2017.1292701>

Rivkin, W., Diestel, S., & Schmidt, K. H. (2014). The positive relationship between

servant leadership and employees' psychological health: A multi-method approach.

Zeitschrift Fur Personalforschung, 28(1–2), 52–72. [http://doi.org/10.1688/ZfP-2014-](http://doi.org/10.1688/ZfP-2014-01-Rivkin)

01-Rivkin

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. (1970). Role Conflict and Ambiguity in Complex

- Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(2), 150–163.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(2), 555–572.
<http://doi.org/10.2307/256693>
- Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., de Rivas, S., Herrero, M., Moreno-Jiménez, B., & van Dierendonck, D. (2014). Leading People Positively: Cross-Cultural Validation of the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 17(e63), 1–13.
<http://doi.org/10.1017/sjp.2014.73>
- Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., Díaz Méndez, D., Moreno-Jiménez, B., Blanco Abarca, A., & van Dierendonck, D. (2010). Vitalidad y recursos internos como componentes del constructo de bienestar psicológico. *Psicothema*, 22(1), 63–70.
- Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., Herrero, M., van Dierendonck, D., de Rivas, S., & Moreno-Jiménez, B. (2016). Can servant leaders help their workers to achieve their daily goals? Servant leaders as promoters of daily meaningfulness. Bifröst University, Iceland: 3rd Global Servant Leadership Research Roundtable.
- Rodríguez-Carvajal, R., Moreno-Jiménez, B., De Rivas Hermosilla, S., Álvarez-Bejarano, A., & Sanz-Vergel, A. I. (2010). Positive Psychology at Work: Mutual Gains for Individuals and Organizations. *Revista de Psicología Del Trabajo Y de Las Organizaciones*, 26(3), 235–253. <http://doi.org/10.5093/tr2010v26n3a7>
- Roepke, A. M., Jayawickreme, E., & Riffle, O. M. (2014). Meaning and health: A systematic review. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 9(4), 1055–1079.
<http://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-013-9288-9>
- Rosso, B. D., Dekas, K. H., & Wrzesniewski, A. (2010, January). On the meaning of work:

- A theoretical integration and review. *Research in Organizational Behavior*.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2010.09.001>
- Russell, R. F., & Stone, a. G. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(3), 145–157.
<http://doi.org/10.1108/01437730210424>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist* , 55(1), 68–78. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.68>
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A Review of Research on Hedonic and Eudaimonic Well-Being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 141–166.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2008). From ego depletion to vitality: Theory and findings concerning the facilitation of energy available to the self. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 2(2), 702–717. <http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2008.00098.x>
- Ryan, R. M., & Frederick, C. (1997). On energy, personality, and health: subjective vitality as a dynamic reflection of well-being. *Journal of Personality*, 65(3), 529–565.
<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1997.tb00326.x>
- Schaffer, B. S., & Riordan, C. M. (2003). *A Review of Cross-Cultural Methodologies for Organizational Research: A Best- Practices Approach*. *Organizational Research Methods* (Vol. 6). <http://doi.org/10.1177/1094428103251542>
- Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S. K., & Peng, A. C. (2011). Cognition-based and affect-based trust as mediators of leader behavior influences on team performance. *The Journal of*

Applied Psychology, 96(4), 863–71. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0022625>

Schwarzer, R., & Taubert, S. (2002). Tenacious goal pursuits and striving toward personal growth: Proactive coping. In E. Frydenberg (Ed.), *Beyond coping: Meeting goals, visions and challenges* (pp. 19–35). London, UK: Oxford University Press.

Searle, T. P. (2011). *A multilevel examination of proactive behaviors: Contextual and individual differences as antecedents*. University of Nebraska.

Selart, M., Johansen, S. T., & Nesse, S. (2013). Employee Reactions to Leader-Initiated Crisis Preparation: Core Dimensions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 116(1), 99–106. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1448-6>

Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 5–14. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.5>

Sendjaya, S., & Cooper, B. (2011). Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale: A hierarchical model and test of construct validity. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 20(3), 416–436. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13594321003590549>

Sendjaya, S., Sarros, J. C., & Santora, J. C. (2008). Defining and Measuring Servant Leadership Behaviour in Organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(2), 0022–2380.

Senjaya, S., & Pekerti, A. (2010). Servant leadership as antecedent of trust in organizations. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(7), 643–663. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437731011079673>

Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance Model. *Journal of Personality and Social*

Psychology.

Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (1995). Coherence and congruence: two aspects of personality integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(3), 531–543. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.68.3.531>

Sheldon, K. M., Kasser, T., Smith, K., & Share, T. (2002). *Personal goals and psychological growth: testing an intervention to enhance goal attainment and personality integration. Journal of personality* (Vol. 70).

Snijders, T. A. B., & Bosker, R. J. (1999). *Multilevel analysis: An introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modeling*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Sommer, S. A., Howell, J. M., & Hadley, C. N. (2016). Keeping Positive and Building Strength: The Role of Affect and Team Leadership in Developing Resilience During an Organizational Crisis. *Group & Organization Management*, 41(2), 172–202. <http://doi.org/10.1177/1059601115578027>

Sonnentag, S., Mojza, E. J., Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2012). Reciprocal relations between recovery and work engagement: the moderating role of job stressors. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(4), 842–853. <http://doi.org/10.1037/a0028292>

Spears. (1998). Introduction. In R. K. Greenleaf (Ed.), *The power of servant leadership* (pp. 1–15). San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Spears, L. C. (1995). *Reflections on leadership: How Robert K. Greenleaf's theory of servant leadership influenced today's top management thinkers*. New York: Wiley.

Spears, L. C. (2010). Character and Servant Leadership : Ten Characteristics of Effective , Caring Leaders. *The Journal of Virtues and Leadership*, 1(1), 25–30. Retrieved from

http://www.regent.edu/acad/global/publications/jvl/vol1_iss1/Spears_Final.pdf

Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research. Truth or urban Legend?

Organizational Research Methods, 9(2), 221–232.

<http://doi.org/10.1177/1094428105284955>

Steger, M. F. (2016). Creating Meaning and Purpose at Work. *The Wiley Blackwell*

Handbook of the Psychology of Positivity and Strengths;#x02010;Based

Approaches at Work, 60–81. <http://doi.org/10.1002/9781118977620.ch5>

Steger, M. F., & Dik, B. J. (2009). If One is Looking for Meaning in Life, Does it Help to

Find Meaning in Work? *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 1(3), 303–320.

<http://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01018.x>

Steger, M. F., Dik, B. J., & Duffy, R. D. (2012). Measuring Meaningful Work: The Work

and Meaning Inventory (WAMI). *Journal of Career Assessment*, 20(3), 322–337.

<http://doi.org/10.1177/1069072711436160>

Steger, M. F., Frazier, P., Oishi, S., & Kaler, M. (2006). The meaning in life questionnaire:

Assessing the presence of and search for meaning in life. *Journal of Counseling*

Psychology, 53(1), 80–93. <http://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.53.1.80>

Steger, M. F., & Kashdan, T. B. (2007). Stability and specificity of meaning in life and life

satisfaction over one year. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 8, 161–179.

<http://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-006-9011-8>

Steger, M. F., & Kashdan, T. B. (2013). The unbearable lightness of meaning: Well-being

and unstable meaning in life. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 8(2), 103–115.

<http://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2013.771208>

- Steger, M. F., Kashdan, T. B., & Oishi, S. (2008). Being good by doing good: Daily eudaimonic activity and well-being. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 42(1), 22–42. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2007.03.004>
- Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2004). Transformational versus servant leadership: A difference in leader focus. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(4), 349–361. <http://doi.org/10.1108/01437730410538671>
- Tang, G., Kwan, H. K., Zhang, D., & Zhu, Z. (2016). Work-Family Effects of Servant Leadership: The Roles of Emotional Exhaustion and Personal Learning. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 137(2), 285–297. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2559-7>
- Teo, T., Lee, C. B., Chai, C. S., & Wong, S. L. (2009). Assessing the intention to use technology among pre-service teachers in Singapore and Malaysia: A multigroup invariance analysis of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). *Computers and Education*, 53(3), 1000–1009. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2009.05.017>
- Tims, M., Bakker, A. B., & Derks, D. (2014). Daily job crafting and the self-efficacy - performance relationship. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(5), 490–507. <http://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-05-2012-0148>
- Trong Tuan, L. (2017). Knowledge sharing in public organizations: The roles of servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 40(4), 361–373. <http://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2015.1113550>
- Twisk, J. W. R. (2010). *Applied Multilevel Analysis*. New York, NY: Cambridge Univeristy Press.
- van de Vijer, F., & Leung, K. (1997). *Methods and data analysis for cross-cultural research*. Thousand Oaks, Canada: SAGE Publications.

- van Dierendonck, D. (2011, September 2). Servant Leadership: A Review and Synthesis. *Journal of Management*. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310380462>
- van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The Servant Leadership Survey: Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Measure. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 26(3), 249–267. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-010-9194-1>
- van Dierendonck, D., & Patterson, K. (2014). Compassionate love as a cornerstone of servant leadership: An integration of previous theorizing and research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, (2011), 1–13. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2085-z>
- van Dierendonck, D., Rodriguez-Carvajal, R., Moreno-Jimenez, B., & Dijkstra, M. T. M. (2009). Goal Integration and Well-Being: Self-Regulation Through Inner Resources in the Netherlands and Spain. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 40(5), 746–760. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0022022109338622>
- van Dierendonck, D., Sousa, M., Gunnarsdóttir, S., Bobbio, A., Hakanen, J., Pircher Verdorfer, A., ... Rodriguez-Carvajal, R. (2017). The Cross-Cultural Invariance of the Servant Leadership Survey: A Comparative Study across Eight Countries. *Administrative Sciences*, 7(2), 8. <http://doi.org/10.3390/admsci7020008>
- van Dierendonck, D., Stam, D., Boersma, P., de Windt, N., & Alkema, J. (2014). Same difference? Exploring the differential mechanisms linking servant leadership and transformational leadership to follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(3), 544–562. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.014>
- van Gils, S., Van Quaquebeke, N., van Knippenberg, D., van Dijke, M., & De Cremer, D. (2014). Ethical leadership and follower organizational deviance: The moderating role of follower moral attentiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(2), 190–203.

<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2014.08.005>

Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (2000). A Review and Synthesis of the Measurement Invariance Literature: Suggestions, Practices, and Recommendations for Organizational Research. *Organizational Research Methods*, 3(1), 4–70.
<http://doi.org/10.1177/109442810031002>

Vansteenkiste, M., Neyrinck, B., Niemiec, C. P., Soenens, B., Witte, H., & Broeck, A. (2007). On the relations among work value orientations, psychological need satisfaction and job outcomes: A self-determination theory approach. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(2), 251–277.
<http://doi.org/10.1348/096317906X111024>

Varga, K., Tóth, Á., Roznár, J., Oláh, A., Betlehem, J., & Jeges, S. (2012). Is “Meaningfulness” a General Mediating Factor? The Salutogenic Revolution of Question-Setting in Health Science and Occupational Psychology. *European Journal of Mental Health*, 7(1), 72–89. <http://doi.org/10.5708/EJMH.7.2012.1.4>

Weinstein, N., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2012). Motivation, meaning, and wellness: A self-determination perspective on the creation and internalization of personal meanings and life goals. In P. T. P. Wong (Ed.), *The human quest for meaning: Theories, research and applications* (2nd ed., pp. 3–22). New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Werbel, J. D., & Henriques, P. L. (2009). Different views of trust and relational leadership: supervisor and subordinate perspectives. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 24(8), 780–796. <http://doi.org/10.1108/02683940910996798>

West, G. R. B., Bocarnea, M., & Maranon, D. (2009). Servant-leadership as a predictor of

job satisfaction and organizational commitment with the moderating effects of organizational support and role clarity among Filipino engineering, manufacturing, and technology workers. *International Journal of Servant-Leadership*, 5, 129–162.

Williams, L. J., & McGonagle, A. K. (2016). Four Research Designs and a Comprehensive Analysis Strategy for Investigating Common Method Variance with Self-Report Measures Using Latent Variables. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 31(3), 1–21. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-015-9422-9>

Winston, B., & Fields, D. (2015). Seeking and measuring the essential behaviors of servant leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 36(4), 413–434. <http://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-10-2013-0135>

Wong, P., & Davey, D. (2007). Best practices in servant leadership. In *Servant Leadership Research Roundtable* (pp. 1–14). Regent University. Retrieved from http://www.leadershiplearningforlife.com/acad/global/publications/sl_proceedings/2007/wong-davey.pdf

Wong, P. T. P., Ivztan, I., & Lomas, T. (2017). Good Work: A meaning-centered approach. In L. G. Oades, M. F. Steger, A. Delle Fave, & J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley Blackwell handbook of the psychology of positivity and strengths-based approaches at work* (pp. 233–247). West Sussex, UK: Wiley Blackwell.

Wong, P. T. P., & Page, D. (2003). Servant leadership: An Opponent-Process Model and the Revised Servant Leadership Profile. In *Servant Leadership Roundtable* (pp. 1–13).

Woods, S. a., & Sofat, J. a. (2013). Personality and engagement at work: the mediating role of psychological meaningfulness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43(11), 2203–2210. <http://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12171>

- Wright, T. A., Cropanzano, R., & Bonett, D. G. (2007). The moderating role of employee positive well being on the relation between job satisfaction and job performance. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 12*(2), 93–104.
<http://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.12.2.93>
- Yoshida, D. T., Sendjaya, S., Hirst, G., & Cooper, B. (2014). Does servant leadership foster creativity and innovation ? A multi-level mediation study of identification and prototypicality. *Journal of Business Research, 67*(7), 1395–1404.
<http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.08.013>
- Zacher, H., Brailsford, H. a., & Parker, S. L. (2014). Micro-breaks matter: A diary study on the effects of energy management strategies on occupational well-being. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 85*(3), 287–297. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2014.08.005>
- Zhang, H., Kwong Kwan, H., Everett, A. M., & Jian, Z. (2012). Servant leadership, organizational identification, and work-to-family enrichment: The moderating role of work climate for sharing family concerns. *Human Resource Management, 51*(5), 747–767. <http://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21498>
- Zhang, Z., Jia, M., & Gu, L. (2012). Transformational leadership in crisis situations: evidence from the People's Republic of China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 23*(19), 4085–4109.
<http://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.639027>
- Zhang, Z., Zyphur, M. J., & Preacher, K. J. (2009). Testing Multilevel Mediation Using Hierarchical Linear Models: Problems and Solutions. *Organizational Research Methods, 12*(4), 695–719. <http://doi.org/10.5465/AMBPP.2008.33716518>

APPENDIX A

Spanish version of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire.

Cuestionario de Liderazgo Servidor (CLS)

1. Mi jefe me da la autoridad que necesito para tomar decisiones que faciliten mi trabajo.
2. Mi jefe me hace responsable del trabajo que llevo a cabo.
3. Mi jefe me da la oportunidad de resolver los problemas por mí mismo en vez de decirme directamente lo que debo hacer.
4. Mi jefe me da la información que necesito para poder hacer bien mi trabajo.
5. Para mi jefe, soy responsable de mi rendimiento.
6. Mi jefe me da bastantes oportunidades para desarrollar nuevas habilidades.
7. Mi jefe nos hace a mí y a mis compañeros responsables de cómo organizamos nuestro trabajo.
8. Mi jefe asume riesgos si es necesario para hacer lo que considera que debe hacerse.
9. Mi jefe critica a las personas por los errores que han cometido en su trabajo (r).
10. Mi jefe asume riesgos incluso cuando no está seguro de si cuenta con el apoyo de su supervisor.
11. Mi jefe aprende de las diferentes visiones y opiniones de los demás.
12. Mi jefe mantiene una actitud dura hacia aquellas personas que le han ofendido en el trabajo (r).
13. Mi jefe intenta aprender de las críticas que le hace su superior.
14. Mi jefe enfatiza la importancia de prestar atención al aspecto positivo de las cosas.
15. Mi jefe aprende de la crítica.
16. A mi jefe le cuesta dejar pasar cosas que fueron mal en el pasado (r).
17. Mi jefe admite sus errores ante su superior.
18. Mi jefe trabaja con una perspectiva a largo plazo.
19. Mi jefe trabaja entre bastidores y deja que otros se lleven los elogios.
20. Mi jefe me anima a hacer uso de mis habilidades y conocimientos.
21. Mi jefe muestra sus limitaciones y debilidades.
22. Mi jefe se conmueve con las cosas que pasan a su alrededor.
23. Mi jefe está dispuesto a expresar sus sentimientos incluso aunque conduzcan a consecuencias indeseables.
24. Si la gente expresa una crítica abiertamente, mi jefe intenta aprender de ella.
25. Mi jefe enfatiza la responsabilidad social de nuestro trabajo.
26. Mi jefe me ayuda a desarrollarme más como profesional.
27. Mi jefe no busca ningún reconocimiento o recompensa en las cosas que hace para los demás.
28. Mi jefe muestra sus verdaderos sentimientos a sus empleados.
29. Mi jefe parece disfrutar los éxitos de sus colegas más que los propios.
30. Mi jefe anima a su equipo a desarrollar nuevas ideas.

Dimensiones:

Empoderamiento: ítems 1, 3, 4, 6, 20, 26 y 30.

Responsabilizar: ítems 2, 5 y 7.

Coraje: ítems 8 y 10.

Aceptación interpersonal: ítems 9, 12 y 16.

Humildad: ítems 11, 13, 15, 17 y 24.

Responsabilidad social: ítems 14, 18 y 25.

Ceder méritos: ítems 19, 27 y 29.

Autenticidad: ítems 21, 22, 23 y 28.

APPENDIX B

Organizational problematic situation descriptions of Study 3

The following four organizational problematic situations' descriptions are written as they were shown to participants. These descriptions were created combining the descriptions linked to the conditions of the ethical organizational behavior manipulation (ethical or unethical organizational behavior and the organizational crisis manipulation (crisis or no-crisis conditions) in Study 3.

Ethical organizational behavior & crisis (ethical crisis)

Components with suspicious effects on health were found in You&B hygiene products.

You&B decided at that time to remove these chemicals in its hygiene products to avoid possible health risks.

However, this information has now come to light on the occasion of the official complaint by the Organization of Consumers and Users (OCU) and it has been published in major media in the country, which has led to a decline in sales in these products.

Ethical organizational behavior & no-crisis (ethical no-crisis)

Components with suspicious effects on health were found in You&B hygiene products.

You&B decided at that time to remove these chemicals in its hygiene products to avoid possible health risks.

This information did not come to light and it has had no impact for the company.

Unethical organizational behavior & crisis (Unethical crisis)

Components with suspicious effects on health were found in You&B hygiene products.

You&B decided at that time to continue using these chemicals in its hygiene products despite the possible health risks.

However, this information has now come to light on the occasion of the official complaint by the Organization of Consumers and Users (OCU) and it has been published in major media in the country, which has led to a decline in sales in these products.

Unethical organizational behavior & no-crisis (Unethical no-crisis)

Components with suspicious effects on health were found in You&B hygiene products.

You&B decided at that time to continue using these chemicals in its hygiene products despite the possible health risks.

This information did not come to light and it has had no impact for the company.